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The Nation.

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The Week.

President Roosevelt has shown that he had a clear conception of a particular type of man for head of the Treasury Department when he set out to find a successor for Secretary Gage. When Governor Crane of Massachusetts felt compelled to decline, the President turned to the Middle West, and sought a man who in two terms as Governor of Iowa had displayed similar traits and won like recognition throughout the country. Leslie M. Shaw came to the front in his State during the Presidential campaign of 1896. While many Republicans were inclined to "wabble" on the financial issue, and to dally with "bimetallism," he insisted upon preaching the gold standard. The people responded, as they always do to a man of convictions, and Mr. Shaw leaped into such prominence that he became the candidate of his party for the Governorship, a year later. No sooner was he installed in the Capitol than he began exerting his influence to secure reforms in the government of the State, and the first session of the Legislature under his leadership did such good work that it commanded the endorsement of even Democratic critics. The most important measure enacted was the Board of Control Law—a law which substituted for the many separate bodies of trustees and commissioners that had previously managed the various penal and charitable institutions, often in a lax and wasteful manner, one board of three members, who were to give all of their time to the work, and who could be held responsible for everything. The immediate result was a great saving in money and a large gain in efficiency, and each succeeding year has further vindicated the wisdom of the change. This reform illustrates the bent of the Governor's mind, and is a fair example of his work as a State Executive. The nation is now, for the first time, to have a Secretary of the Treasury who lives in a country town in the western part of a great agricultural State, lying beyond the Mississippi River.

There seems to be a hitch in the negotiations between our Government and that of Denmark respecting the purchase of the Danish Islands. The hitch is fortunate for both ourselves and the islanders. If we should buy them, we should lose the purchase-money, and add to our responsibilities and expenses for all future time. We should not attend to our responsibilities, or should attend to them only by fits and starts. The islanders have been close observers of our methods of dealing with colonies, and have not been favorably impressed. Their original desire for annexation has accordingly cooled. They find themselves much more attached to the mother country than they supposed they were. They do not want a change until they can better themselves. If we had treated Porto Rico as a part of the United States, and given her people citizenship and free trade at the outset, the temptation to the inhabitants of the Danish islands to come in would have been strong. But if they should come in now, by purchase or otherwise, nobody could predict what their future status would be. Neither we nor they could form any satisfactory judgment on that subject, any more than we can about the tariff on Cuban sugar or our future trade relations with the Philippines. The truth is that Uncle Sam does not know what to do with his new possessions. His position is aptly represented by the gyrations of his Supreme Court. Under such circumstances the fewer islands he attempts to govern the better will he be able to maintain his own dignity in the family of nations.

Already one Republican Senator is quoted as holding that the surrender of the Panama Company puts an entirely new aspect upon the whole question of an Isthmian canal. He maintains that there is no need of hurrying madly about the business, and that, if the French shareholders are now willing to sell their property at a reasonable price, it is the duty of the United States to look into the matter carefully, and not rashly commit itself to an inferior route, while at the same time squandering millions of dollars. Such sane opinions will be more numerous, we are convinced, when Congress comes to take up the canal bills. It cannot ignore the report of our own Commissioners, which so evidently favors the Panama location, provided the price were a fair one. The French stockholders will now come quickly to terms, unless they are crazy and wish to be ruined. The fair price is, therefore, almost certain to be forthcoming, and Congress cannot ignore the offer. The question is by no means "closed."

According to the *Sun's* Manila dispatches, there exists genuine friction between Gov. Taft and Gen. Chaffee over the situation in Luzon. The civilian, it seems, wishes to extend civil authority in every direction, while the soldier still sees the need of keeping up many small garrisons in the various provinces. A private letter from an able officer of the army, whose name has frequently been mentioned in reports and dispatches for his excellent work in the field, throws some light on the reasons for Gen. Chaffee's anxiety. "Southern Luzon," he says, "is still far from pacified. We do just as much 'hiking' as ever, and although the insurgents are not very aggressive, we expect them to show more activity about January 1, when the dry season begins. It is rumored now that Malvar has landed 5,000 new arms in the Camarines, and is prepared to give us a 'hot time' soon. Every fugitive from justice, every ne'er-do-weel has joined Malvar. I believe we shall ultimately have to adopt some system of reconcentration." Since the above letter was written, reconcentration, which means among other things warfare upon women and children, wherever tried, has been resorted to in Southern Luzon as well as in Samar. The writer also states that the natives fear the vengeance of their own people far more than the warfare of the Americans, and that the Filipinos who take the oath of allegiance continue to plot against their foreign oppressors.

The English protestants against the course of Great Britain in South Africa are in one respect in a much better situation than the Americans who are unalterably opposed to the Government's Philippine policy. Whether Parliament is in session or not, the English public is able to get more solid facts about the happenings in South Africa than the Americans obtain about the Philippines. The administration of the concentration camps, for instance, was greatly changed because of the publication, month after month, by the Government, of the official mortality statistics. So high did the death-rate become that the English people declined to permit matters to go on unaltered. Similarly, the English War Office publishes every month the total casualties since the beginning of the war, and includes not only those who have died at sea, but those whose deaths took place after their return home because of wounds or illness contracted in South Africa. The American War Department publishes just what it pleases, being subject to no such open cross-questioning as an English Under-Secretary meets in St. Stephen's. It has grown so niggardly that it will not allow Gen. Chaffee even to cable the deaths in his command, while complete tables of the American losses are never given out. As for the facts about military methods, and where the reconcentration is in force, and how many are the victims that it counts, the American citizen is simply referred to the daily press—that is, to the two correspondents of the great press associations in Manila. If they choose to suppress or overlook important news, why, the War Department is certainly not to blame!

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The scheme for a Pan-American bank seems mainly designed as a sort of certificate of good municipal character. The first report read at Mexico recommended "that there be established in New York, San Francisco, New Orleans, Buenos Ayres, and other important commercial centres, a bank with branches in the principal cities of the American republics." Imagine the feelings of the inhabitants of places not fortunate enough to be mentioned in the resolution. At least one American city has had the spirit to rebel against such cavalier treatment. Chicago came forward in the person of an American delegate, to insist upon being added to the list of cities "having a claim" to one of the branches. Only the representatives of Bolivia and Ecuador were small enough to vote against this act of justice to Chicago, and their opposition was quite offset by the glowing tribute to her merits paid by a Chilian delegate—who, however, excused himself from voting. The conference will find the task of deciding between the claims of rival cities as difficult as the judgment of Paris, although, as the Pan-American Bank may never get beyond its present Platonic stage, the consequences will not be so disastrous.

The establishment of a chair of Chinese literature at Columbia constitutes no marked departure from tradition, since a university is by definition a place for the study of all branches of knowledge. But it appears from interviews with the founder, Gen. H. W. Carpentier, that the new professorship will have a practical as well as an academic function. It is clear that we are hereafter to be in closer trade relations with the Celestial Empire than in the past, and it is certainly desirable that those who represent this country in China should have not only some knowledge of things Chinese, but also a genuine respect for the Chinese mind and character. It is easy to see how, on the basis of this new foundation, there might be built up gradually a school of Eastern languages, at which not only scholars, but diplomatic and consular officials and representatives of commercial houses might fit themselves for their respective duties. A School of Living Oriental Languages at Paris fills this useful function, with no sacrifice of scholastic dignity. Educators will watch with interest the administration of Gen. Carpentier's far-sighted gift.

Why should the duty on works of art be continued, against the protest of all who are supposed to be benefited by it? For the artists, in whose behalf, presumably, the duty was reimposed in 1898, the noted painter John Alexander recently spoke before the Carnegie Institute at Pittsburgh, saying, "The true artist does not need protection, and does not want it." It has been made clear a thousand times that the tariff on works of art is actually to the artists' disadvantage, since it hinders the bringing over of great works of art the presence of which in the country would be most valuable to our artists. The Treasury could easily dispense with this duty. For the fiscal year ending June 30 last, the revenue from paintings and statuary amounted to less than $371,000, or about one-sixth of 1 per cent. of the total customs receipts for that year. What stands in the way of the reform is chiefly indifference. If representatives of the Art Societies would make it a point to see their respective Congressmen and Senators, this indifference might be broken, for it could be made plain that here no attack upon the protective principle and no attack upon the sacrosanct tariff lie concealed. Probably when the duties on objects of art were reimposed in the Dingley Bill, it was with the feeling that these are objects of luxury belonging to very wealthy people who can afford to pay for their luxuries. A little reasoning together of artists, collectors, and Congressmen should make it clear that this relegation of objects of art to the same category with champagne and cigars is unworthy of an enlightened nation.

Congressman McCleary of Minnesota has sent out a circular to some 2,400 presidents of national banks asking whether, in their judgment, it would be well to amend the national-bank act so as to permit national banks in the smaller places, where the clientèle of the banks is largely rural, to loan a portion of their resources on real-estate security. He does not express any opinion of his own on the subject, but merely seeks the opinions of bankers. He understands that strictly commercial banks should, so far as possible, keep their resources in the form of quick assets, leaving loans on real property to the savings banks and private lenders. "The larger cities," he says, "are provided with both kinds of banks, so that the people in such communities can secure in the appropriate place the kind of loans required; but in the smaller towns and villages these separate conveniences cannot be found. The bank, in the necessity of the situation, must perform both functions, and they all do so." As the national banking law does not allow loans on landed security, "the bank" to which Mr. McCleary here refers must be a State bank or private bank. Anything or anybody can be a bank in this free country, but a national bank that habitually lends money on mortgage can be and ought to be closed by the Comptroller of the Currency.

We see no objection to Mr. McCleary's circular, but we see very grave objections to any change in the national banking act in this particular. Lending money on real-estate security means long loans, and there is plenty of money to be had for long loans, but it is not commercial bank money. The latter is not composed chiefly of cash, but of credit. In order that the credit may be preserved, the assets of the bank must be within easy reach. They must be convertible into money within brief and definite periods. Loans on short time are only an aggravation to farmers. It is true that there are private money-lenders who put the word bank over their doors, and who do a mixed business, lending on both personal and real security. They take their risk, but they risk nothing that is not their own. The national bank that lends on farm lands or other real property risks the money of its shareholders and depositors and the reputation of the national banking system. All the reasons which decided Congress in 1864 to restrict loans to personal security are still in full force, and we can think of nothing in the whole system less likely to be changed. We apprehend that a clause permitting loans by national banks on real-estate security would profoundly modify the confidence of the business community in the system as a whole. It would certainly shake confidence in any particular bank that should avail itself of such permission.

It appears likely that the question of municipal ownership of street railways may be submitted to the voters at the next Chicago election. To obtain such a result, a petition signed by 104,000 voters is necessary, and of this number 50,000, it is reported, have already been secured. The movement is of special interest in the light of what has been done by the Street Railway Committee of the City Council. In recommending a plan for franchise extension, that body, three weeks ago, reported that "the immediate municipalization of the street railways of Chicago as a practical proposition, most persons will readily admit, is out of the question. The wisdom of such municipalization in the future is an open question." It is now believed that the effort to have the voters decide for or against municipal ownership is being urged by Mayor Harrison. Undoubtedly the whole franchise agitation has subjected him to heavy pressure. If the franchises should be extended without a plébiscite, advocates of municipal ownership would be inclined to grumble. Needless to say, the terms of the franchise grant will be severely criticised in any event. Whichever way the popular vote may go, it will relieve the Mayor of a burdensome responsibility. We do not think, however, that the voters of Chicago will approve the principle of municipalization. The verdict of the Committee is against it, and, as in-

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vestigation shows, there is no sound reason for expecting much lower fares should it be adopted. The intelligence and good citizenship shown in the whole discussion of this question in Chicago are in pleasing contrast with the inertia of Philadelphia, at the time of the discreditable betrayal of the city's interests by Mayor Ashbridge.

Senator Daniel's resignation of his membership in the Virginia Constitutional Convention indicates that this body is approaching a crisis. Undoubtedly, the people of Virginia are thoroughly weary of the Convention and its protracted wrangles. During the past six months there has been little or no harmony among the members upon any of the proposed reforms. The fight over the judiciary question shows how bitter a contest may be provoked by even a minor issue. What is likely to happen when the report of the Suffrage Committee is received this month is accurately foreshadowed by Senator Daniel, who points out that the debates will prove a "political graveyard" to some of those who take part in them. The brunt of the suffrage battle will, in fact, rage about the so-called "understanding" clause. Both the majority and minority reports of the Committee would lengthen the voter's time of residence to two years in the State and one year in the county where his ballot is offered. Both would allow old soldiers to register, without distinction of the side on which they fought. Both would have substantially the same provisions regarding payment of certain taxes as a prerequisite to voting. The majority report would, however, erect a permanent board of registration in each magisterial district, armed with power to enforce a perpetual "understanding" clause, while the minority report would abolish this board after January 1, 1904. By that time, the moderates contend, the board would have been able to separate the sheep from the goats for the present. There will be strong opposition to the perpetual board, both from those who represent the poor whites and from an unexpectedly large number who favor more equitable treatment for the blacks. Senator Daniel's withdrawal may be the better part of valor, but it lacks dignity, as a certain form of prudence always does.

Two good men mutually misunderstanding each other and generally misunderstood—that is the painful spectacle which Mr. Perry Belmont and Mr. Croker present to the voters of the Seventh Congressional District. They appear to differ about the number of times that the candidate visited the boss at the Democratic Club, but this is really unimportant. Mr. Croker speaks, in his large way, about Mr. Belmont's having sought him out "a hundred times," and having, in fact, "nearly bothered me to death about his candidacy"; whereas Mr. Belmont confesses to only three visits, and those "at long intervals." The important thing, however, was the object the candidate had in calling. Croker says it was to secure his support; not so, says Mr. Belmont, it was solely to insure the boss's enmity, which he now proudly wears in his button-hole, and reckons to be worth many votes. Evidently, if Croker had known why Belmont came to see him, the little unpleasantness between the two would never have arisen; they would have continued the best of friends if it had only been clear that they were hob-nobbing in order to become enemies.

Ever since ex-Mayor Grant's Christmas gifts, amounting to $10,000, to Miss Flossie Croker were revealed to an unsympathetic world, a dozen years ago, the question of giving between political associates has been fairly open to discussion. As in the case of Mr. Grant in 1890, the fact that Mr. Belmont had made a Christmas gift to the son of a political supporter transpires under pressure from the enemy. Mr. Grant, however, was able to explain his gift gracefully by his godfatherly relation to Miss Flossie, while Mr. Belmont offers such an explanation and apology as have rarely been put forth in the Christmas-tide. He gave, he admits, an oil painting, by an artist whose name he fails to recall, to Mr. Edward Muller, the son of the Democratic leader of Richmond. But this painting, which Mr. Belmont's enemies believe to be of great price—*ignotum pro magnifico*—Mr. Belmont, who is a connoisseur, asserts is a thing of little worth. To be exact, it is worth $200; it is the kind of picture which a man might own, but the possession of which he could hardly value; it is very like a picture in Mr. Edward Muller's collection; in short it is just the kind of a picture that a candidate would be glad to give away in a friendly spirit to a political supporter. Such, in effect, is Mr. Belmont's explanation, which we gladly accept, acquitting him of any intention to win over the Richmond leader through the corrupting influences of art; but Mr. Belmont's not wholly graceful exit from the affair suggests that there is danger in departing from the conventional Christmas gifts prescribed by Tammany tradition.

The theory that the Monroe Doctrine will compel the United States to interfere with Germany in its efforts to collect a claim from Venezuela, is too ridiculous for the most earnest defenders of the Doctrine to maintain. The *Tribune* can always be depended upon to see that this "venerable and beneficent instrument," as it is affectionately styled, shall suffer no harm, and the *Tribune* flatly declares that Germany's conduct will not do it the slightest despite. Our contemporary points out that the Doctrine "is not and never was a charter of international libertinism," and that "it is not to be used as a screen for refractory and contumacious debtors." In short, it insists that the Doctrine has nothing to do with the case, as our Government understands that case. Under such conditions, an attempt to get up a war scare is as silly as it is unjustifiable.

Through a shrewd manœuvre of that canny Scott Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Lord Rosebery in his solitary furrow is in some danger of appearing ridiculous. In his widely heralded Chesterfield speech, Lord Rosebery emerged momentarily from his ivory tower, and reminded the Liberals that, whenever they might need a leader to bring them out of their present discomfiture, the leader would not, through Lord Rosebery's fault, at least, fail to appear. The present Liberal leader, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, simply and cruelly takes Lord Rosebery at his word. "Come back to our shattered forces," he says in effect; "and since you believe that our present leaders are unskilful or perverse, rally our forlorn hope yourself. Let the Liberals choose between you and me, and abide by the result." Of course, this invitation is less fair than it seems, for Campbell-Bannerman runs the Liberal machine. Yet the invitation quite strips Rosebery of all pretension to be a coming saviour of the Liberal party, and puts him either in the invidious position of a fisher, for his own profit, in troubled waters, or in the somewhat ridiculous attitude of a literary nobleman who, under cover of a great political meeting, has contrived merely to free his mind.

A Society for the Suppression of Alcoholism met recently in Breslau to consider the drink question in Germany. The Empire, it appears, spends $750,000,000 a year on drink, as against $3,000,000,000 for food. A Munich employer of many skilled workmen, in speaking last summer of the difficulties of competing with foreign and even North German concerns, laid stress upon the cheapness of Munich beer as one of his greatest handicaps. "If we were on equal terms in every other respect," he said, "the fact that my men's brains and bodies are sodden with beer, day and night, would put me behind in the race." So serious has the drawback of beer-drinking workingmen in Germany become, and so thoroughly is it recognized, that a movement has been started to exclude the drink from the factory premises.

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF SUBSIDIES.

Any candid man must admit that many causes tended to the commercial supremacy of England in the middle of the last century, and that this commercial supremacy involved the supremacy of her merchant marine. When steam first came in to draw the ends of the earth nearer together, England at once took advantage of the quickened mode of transit. She made mail contracts with the Cunard Line to Halifax and Boston; with the Peninsular and Oriental Company, first, to Gibraltar and later to Egypt, India, China, and Australia; and with the Royal Mail Packet Company to Spain, the Madeiras, the West Indies, and Colon, connecting at the latter place (via Panama) with the Pacific Steam Navigation Company to Valparaiso. But England did not acquire ships for the mere purpose of having them, nor, indeed, for the primary purpose of fostering shipbuilding. With England it was, in those early days, a case of paying for steam communication and mail service or going without it. Ocean steam navigation was then an experiment, and Great Britain's colonial relations made it a political necessity for her to try the experiment first. Her statesmen were forced to take the burden of risks which no private individual could prudently bear. Her supplies of coal and iron, her growing manufacturing interests, her imports of food and raw materials, and export of finished products, all contributed to the development of her merchant marine. The interests of the merchants of India, the manufacturers of Manchester, the colonists of Canada, as well as of the bankers of London, required that the British merchant marine should continue with the new motive power, steam, to be as powerful as it had been with sail.

What England's policy was earlier in the century, that has been the policy of Germany during the last twenty years. Germany has been every bit as envious as America of England's supremacy, and, like America, Germany has succeeded in obtaining a large share of the world's commerce. She has steadily followed in England's footsteps, has acquired colonies, built up her commerce, and developed her industries. But, in the matter of shipping, Germany has been wiser than America. Her motto has been that half a loaf is better than no bread; and if, at first, she could not build her own ships, she was willing to let England build them and hoist her own flag over them. Thus, the *Normannia*, which, not so long ago, held the record for speed across the Atlantic, and made the German flag known all over the United States, was built on the Clyde. Many other German ships have been and still are built in British yards. By pursuing this liberal policy, Germany has, after all, attained the very object for which America is striving—that is, the building up of her own yards; for the last two ocean greyhounds, the *Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse* and the *Deutschland*, were both built on the Baltic, in the yards of the Vulcan Shipbuilding Company, at Stettin. The result of all this is that Germany's steam merchant marine to-day is second only to that of England.

The flourishing condition of the merchant marines of England and Germany is attributed by many people to the payments made by those countries for the transportation of mails, or as direct subsidies. These payments, in the case of England, amount to about $5,000,000 yearly, and are, with the exception of about $325,000 Admiralty subventions, for actual service rendered by the steamship companies as mail-carriers. The amounts paid, for instance, to the Cunard and White Star Lines for the British fiscal year 1901, according to official figures, were: For British mails to New York, $556,553; for Admiralty subventions, $142,403—*i. e.*, for a semi-weekly service, a total of $698,956, and an average for 104 voyages of $6,720.73 per voyage. The actual operating expenses of one of the large first-class steamers of these companies, for the round trip, are about $75,000. This leaves a balance of more than $68,000 to be earned in passage money (for the large transatlantic liners, it must be remembered, carry very little freight). Moreover, the travelling season, when the companies can count on every berth being sold out, is very short, and even then a steamer has a full passenger list only in one direction, for the tide of travel in the spring and summer is mostly eastward, and in the autumn westward. But the liner under mail contract must nevertheless maintain dates throughout the year, even in the dullest winter season, when passengers are few and rates are low. Thus these enforced winter trips consume a good deal of the profits of the summer, which would otherwise go to the credit of the steamer's account. On the other hand, a line not under a mail contract is free to cancel a date which does not promise to be lucrative, and take advantage of the dulness of trade to give steamers the necessary annual overhauling, or put them on a more lucrative route. A mail contract, then, is not an unmitigated blessing.

If subsidies were as beneficial as many assert they are, it would seem that subsidized lines should be more successful than unsubsidized ones; but in England the progress of the latter compares favorably with the progress of the former. The Bibby Line, unsubsidized, to Farther India, has successfully competed with the Peninsular and Oriental Company. In Germany, too, the Hamburg-American Line successfully competed with the North German Lloyd, for the first fifty years of its existence, without a cent of subsidy, and only recently entered into a mail contract, jointly with the North German Lloyd, to East Asia. The Hamburg-American Line's share of this contract, for the last business year, amounted to only $65,000. This amount, according to the published statement of the Director General of the line, Mr. Albert Ballin, left no profit, owing to the numerous requirements of the contract as to the high class of vessels, speed, itinerary, etc. Among other successful unsubsidized lines may be mentioned the Atlantic Transport Line (controlled by American capital, sailed under the British flag), the Leyland Line, lately acquired by American capital represented by Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, and the Holland-America Line. The last of these, according to the report of the Commissioner of Navigation, paid a dividend of 10 per cent. in the fiscal year 1899-00.

The countries mentioned, England and Germany, are those usually cited by the American advocates of subsidies. But the country in which subsidies have been paid most freely is France. Mr. Bates, in his 'American Marine,' says: "The shipping protection given by the Republic of France, being general, is the very best foreign example, if we need one." What is the example of France? Commencing in 1861 with subsidies of 9,300,000 francs, or $1,860,000, she has increased these payments from time to time, until the total, according to the French budget for 1901, is $9,000,000 for the current year (including bounties on construction and navigation and mail payments). For this vast sum of money France has now a steam merchant-marine of only 1,068,036 tons—not as large as that of America.

By the law of 1881, which lasted for ten years, France initiated a policy of bounties upon shipbuilding and also upon navigation in native and *in foreign bottoms*, in addition to the regular subventions for postal services. The immediate effect of this law was an increase in the number of ships sailing under the French flag, and a corresponding increase in the construction and navigation bounties paid out by the Government. In 1889 the total had reached $7,000,000 annually, and has remained at that figure, or higher, ever since. This increase in tonnage, however, did not mean a corresponding increase in French shipbuilding, for the French ship-owners seem to have been able to buy foreign ships to better advantage, despite the bounty the native shipbuilder received, and despite the fact that the navigation bounty for native-built ships was twice as much as that for foreign ones. Another noteworthy point is, that, as the term of expiration of this law approached, the ship-owners, uncertain whether the bounty would be continued, ceased increasing their fleet. They seemed, then, to regard the continued payment of the bounty as a *sine qua non* of the life of the French merchant-

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marine. The most ardent advocates of subsidies in America have always avowed that the payments proposed were only a temporary measure.

By the law of 1893 France abolished the bounty on boats of foreign build, but at the same time increased the payments for construction and navigation of native bottoms, and also renewed the liberal postal contracts. Her steam tonnage then was 855,798; in 1901 it was 1,068,036. During these nine years the payments made under the law mentioned averaged $7,500,000 yearly. Almost coincident with the passage of this law was the American act of 1892, establishing the American Line. The subjoined table of figures since that date* may be interesting. It is compiled from the annual report of the United States Commissioner of Navigation, 1901, and Lloyd's Register. The tonnage given is *gross*, and includes steamers exceeding 100 tons. The tonnage for the United States includes lake and ocean steamers of the same capacity. The mail payments for the United States are for the carriage of mail by United States steamers *to foreign countries* only. (The steam tonnage of the United States registered for the foreign trade on June 30, 1901, was 429,722 tons.)

In the table below, the most interesting column is that referring to Sweden and Norway. This monarchy has a marine greater than that of France, but it pays only about $175,000 per annum for subsidies and mail contracts, and part of this amount goes to foreign vessels not included in the tonnage given. Sweden and Norway have neither the colonies of England, France, or Germany, nor the outlying territory of the United States; their commerce, compared with that of those countries, is small; but of the ships which entered Swedish and Norwegian ports in 1900 in the foreign trade, two-thirds were native bottoms.

To sum up, in the two examples most frequently cited by the advocates of subsidies—England and Germany—other causes, more effective than subsidies, were at work to build up the marines of those countries, viz., great natural advantages, native industry, foreign commerce, and liberal navigation laws. Moreover, the lines subsidized by those countries have not prospered to any greater extent, for reasons shown, than lines which were unsubsidized. In France, where heavy subsidies have been paid for forty years past, the merchant-marine has, for a long time, practically stood still. The monarchy of Sweden and Norway, which grants subsidies and mail contracts of only a trifling amount, owns a steam tonnage greater than that of France. In view of these facts, it does not seem that the examples of European countries may be taken as arguments in favor of a general subsidized merchant marine.

THE LOW ADMINISTRATION.

Mr. Low has practically completed the organization of the government which, under his direction, will conduct the affairs of this city during the next two years. Of his last eight appointees, three are representatives of the Citizens' Union, three are Democrats, and two are Republicans, and they are fully up to the standard of those previously selected. The non-partisan character which Mr. Low has given to his appointments from the beginning is thus maintained in these last selections. Of the thirty-one offices filled so far, fifteen have gone to Republicans, eleven to Democrats, and five to members of the Citizens' Union. Still more notable is the fact that only six of the fifteen Republicans are recognized as men closely affiliated with the local Republican machine. Three of Mr. Low's Democratic appointments are of men who voted against him. These facts should allay the fears of people who declined to vote for Mr. Low because, in their imaginations, he merely stood for Senator Platt.

Taking the selections as a whole, it is not too much to say that no municipal government has ever gone into office in this country composed of men of higher character. From the outset Mr. Low gave his word that merit and fitness should be the sole tests for his appointees, and he seems to have lived up to his pledge, even though he has met with a number of disappointments in the refusal of several "first choices" to sacrifice their personal interests in order to accept office. In saying this we do not mean to assert that Mr. Low's government is to be a perfect one. Since his selections are, after all, only human beings, many of whom have had little or no experience with the dangers and difficulties of important administrative offices, it is altogether likely that there will be plenty of mistakes made between January 1, 1902, and December 31, 1903. But the fact remains that Mr. Low has given the most reliable surety for the proper administration of the city government by choosing the best men that he could get, and men who are thoroughly in sympathy with the fundamental doctrine that the city is to be ruled in the interests of all its inhabitants, and not in those of its office-holders.

The guiding principle of Tammany Hall in filling offices was frequently, if not always, the idea of "taking care" of men who were unable to earn their own living in business or in the professions. So far as we are informed, there is not one of Mr. Low's selections who has failed to make an honorable place in the community for himself by his own efforts. The only man on the list who has held office frequently is Col. Partridge. He has earned this distinction, not by favor of a district leader or a boss, or as a result of party servility, but because he has made himself indispensable to the Executives of city or State who wished to have an honest and fearless department head, of experience and training.

In most of the administrations of the city during the last fifty years, special fitness for office has been altogether ignored. The scientist who, like Dr. Biggs of the bacteriological laboratory, retained his office under a Tammany administration, did so because no Tammany heeler wanted the "job," or because of other unusual circumstances. Mr. Low has never lost sight of the fact that special duties require special training. For Tenement-House Commissioner he selected the man with the broadest knowledge of tenement-house conditions. For Charities Commissioner he chose a man whose life work has been the problem of private and public charity. To the office of Police Commissioner he appointed a man who had been the head of the Police Department of a large portion of the city. As his Corporation Counsel he took a lawyer of wide reputation in his profession, who had helped to draw the very charter which he will be called upon to interpret. Where he was not able to find a man to head a department who had been trained in similar work, he selected

*	UNITED STATES.		FRANCE.		GERMANY.		GREAT BRITAIN AND COLONIES.		SWEDEN AND NORWAY.	
	Steam tonnage.	Mail pay'ts, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail pay'ts, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail payments, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail pay'ts, subsidies, etc.	Steam tonnage.	Mail payments, subsidies, etc.
1893	630,646	$646 031	855,798		1,125,952		9,544.394		593,996	
1894	887,766	711,442	891,720		1,214,830		9,838,353		630,582	
1895	920,672	633,035	903,105		1,343,357	Average $1,500,000 for postal services; also special tariff and railroad rates on building material for ships; not computable.	10,238,001		679,929	
1896	1,005,459	1,027,735	930,785	Average $7,500,000 per year.	1,436,539		10,508,443	Average $5,000,000 annually.	773,667	Average $175,000 annually, including some payments to foreign vessels for postal services.
1897	1,105,423	1.280,063	954,916		1.549,961		10,799,446		857,193	
1898	1,175.762	1,038,141	972,617		1,644,337		11,168,189		947,172	
1899	1,236,308	998,111	997,235		1,946,732		11,719,247		1,117,984	
1900	1,454,966	1,269,660	1,052,193		2,159,919		12,149,090		1,183,233	
1901	1,704,156	1,250,000	1,068.036		2,417,410		12,739,180		1,261,355	

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one of broad scientific training, such as implied his successful mastery of the problem assigned to him. Dr. Woodbury, the new Street-Cleaning Commissioner, is of this type, while Dr. Lederle, the Health Commissioner, illustrates Mr. Low's desire to promote a faithful subordinate official to the head of the department in which he has served.

Mr. Low's policy in these matters must commend itself to all concerned, and make any future return to the "Mike" Murphy, the Percy Nagle, and the John J. Scannell type of public officer seem even more monstrous and uncivilized than hitherto. So Mr. Low's frank taking of the public into his confidence as to the reasons for his appointments will make any return to the old method of "government under a blanket" more difficult than in the past. Tammany's administration of the Street-Cleaning Department, bad and corrupt as it has been, has still been more effective than the work of Col. Waring's predecessors. The Waring standard has not been without its effect even upon Tammany Hall.

There have been some doubts expressed whether a government like Mr. Low's, formed largely of specialists and of representatives of what are often called, for want of a more proper term, the "better classes," will not lose touch with the masses, and so bring about a relapse into the old barbaric Croker methods at the end of two years. To these fears the reply must be that the development of a modern municipality makes the services of specialists or of men of large affairs indispensable. The safest way of preventing a return to Tammany government is by giving an administration which is so indubitably honest and so sincerely devoted to the interests of the "plain people" that no citizen can have any doubt upon those points, whatever mistakes of judgment may be made. The failure of the Strong administration to inspire confidence in these respects was largely the cause of Tammany's success in 1897. The approval with which Mr. Low's appointments have been received by the various parties to the fusion movement, as well as their excellent character and his own high motives, afford ground for the belief that every honest citizen will recognize in 1903 the necessity for the continuance of government of this type.

PUBLICITY OF ACCOUNTS ABROAD.

President Roosevelt's recommendation of enforced publicity in the accounts of corporations, followed up as it was by the introduction of Representative Littlefield's bill to compass that end, gives pertinence to a survey of what other countries are doing in this way. Corporation law on the Continent has always been much more rigid and precise than in England or the United States. The German Corporations Act provides for securing an inquiry at the outset into the circumstances of the promotion of every incorporated company. One of the first duties of directors is to send out a formal report on this subject, and, in case any of the directors have had a hand in promoting the company, another report, prepared by independent auditors, must be issued. Capital stock must be fully paid in cash or in property at a fair value. The articles of incorporation must state the number and kind of shares to be issued, and no permission for subsequent "increase of stock" is granted. Publicity is secured by minute provisions for stockholders' meetings and for regular reports to them.

French law is quite as explicit. It deals with the full payment of capital as a preliminary to business in nearly as rigid a way as the German law, and, if anything, it is more elaborate in its requirement of publicity. Not only does it contain regulations like those in the German law, but it furnishes a means for revision of the annual reports by the stockholders, and orders the publication of the articles of incorporation and by-laws in every locality where the concern operates. Corporations must furnish to the Government information about their transactions upon demand.

With such an enforcement of publicity and responsibility, organization under corporate form would, in any case, naturally have proceeded more slowly on the Continent than in the United States or England. The trouble there has not been owing to looseness in corporation law, so much as to difficulty in inducing the Trusts to assume corporate form. This difficulty has, however, been partly due to outside influences. An attitude towards Trusts entirely different from ours has been adopted by Continental governments. In Germany, for example, they have been officially recognized in certain ways, and have been assisted in maintaining their monopoly. This does not refer merely to protective tariff duties. The general policy of protection for all industries in need of assistance against outside competition has been coupled with a willingness to see internal competition destroyed. Thus, Prussia has practically recognized the existence of the Coal Trust, and has made agreements with it for supplying fuel to state railways. In a similar fashion, the Trust of locomotive manufacturers has dealt directly with the Government. In this latter instance the Trust is not merely recognized, but practically created, by the state. Public authority in Germany has, in fact, not only failed to hinder the Trust movement, but has favored it, seeming to see in it a legitimate extension of the protectionist policy.

This state of things has for some time been looked at askance by consumers, who now wish to know what the Trusts are doing, and to that end desire to see them subjected to corporation law. And, in spite of the already minute and extensive provisions of that law, there has been a growing demand throughout Europe for stricter control. The leaders of the German anti-Trust movement are particularly explicit. They ask that all Trusts or other commercial organizations shall furnish to the Government information concerning the nature of their operations, and that this shall be published, with data showing the effect of combinations upon prices and wages. They insist that all combinations shall be required to organize under the corporation law. And, finally, some even urge that monopolies shall be supervised by the state, their prices fixed, and their profits above a fair rate of interest taken from them by taxation.

That this latter demand is extreme, is apparent. It does not gain large support, even in Germany. Just how far conservative Continental opinion is willing to go in this matter of corporation control may, however, be seen in the "Actien regulation," issued by the Austrian Ministry of the Interior in 1899, for the control of all commercial corporations, exclusive of banks, insurance companies, and railways, which operate under special charter. Not only does this act revise the whole Austrian corporation law, but it is particularly clear in prescribing publicity and full payment of capital stock by means of assuring equitable dealing. According to the new order, the mode of paying capital stock—whether in cash or in property—must be specified in the articles of incorporation, and only in a certain limited number of cases may it be paid otherwise than in cash. When paid in property, such property can be accepted only at its fair market value. The stock may not be issued below par, and must be fully paid up *before* the company begins business. Directors are required to see that the necessary books are kept. At the close of each business year, there must be a statement of profit or loss. The principles upon which this balance-sheet is prepared must be specified in the by-laws of the corporation, and a full account of all assets and liabilities, according to value, must be made public. Property that has deteriorated since it was acquired is to be inventoried, and each piece valued at a proper discount. This report must be furnished to all stockholders each year by the directors. Furthermore, a reserve must be established, by laying aside annually 1-20 of the net profits of the company, in order to guard against losses. Finally, all information about the enterprise, its earnings, etc., is to be certified to the local authorities, and by them sent to the Ministry of the Interior.

It may be suspected that the tendency toward regulation of corporations is to

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be found only in bureaucratic Germany or official-ridden Austria. Such, however, is not the case. The same movement is powerful in England, as is shown by the bill of 1897 to amend the Companies Acts. This measure contains many features which anticipate the Austrian order of 1899. It provides for a stockholders' annual balance-sheet, stating assets and liabilities at true valuations, and erects a system of audit for testing the accuracy of these reports. If the Austrian order corresponds to what Mr. James B. Dill calls "public publicity," the English bill of 1897 represents his "private publicity."

CLARENCE KING.

Clarence King, widely known during many years past as a geologist and mining expert of the highest distinction, died on Tuesday morning, December 24, at Phœnix, Arizona, whither he went to reside some months since, in the hope that he might there recover from an attack of consumption, or some related malady of the lungs, which, as he believed, he had contracted during a journey in the Klondike some time during the previous year. His body will be brought East for interment at Newport, R. I., his birthplace and family home, where his mother, Mrs. Florence King Howland, still lives to lament his loss.

King was born January 6, 1842, and had nearly completed his sixtieth year. He passed a part of his boyhood at school in Hartford, Conn., and studied later at the Sheffield Scientific School, at Yale, where he was graduated in 1862. He went to California in 1863, crossing the plains on horseback with an emigrant train, studying the geology of the country as he passed through it, and, by intelligent and scientific observation, developing the ideal conceptions which resulted, a few years later, in the geological exploration of that region by a Government expedition under his own direction. In California, King served for several years on the State Geological Survey, under Prof. J. D. Whitney, achieving distinction in various ways, notably in the high Sierra, where he climbed and measured the summits of greatest altitude, and gave the name of Mount Whitney to the highest peak of the range. His experiences of that period are recorded in his 'Mountaineering in the Sierra Nevada,' a work of rare literary excellence and charm.

During the winter of 1866-67, Mr. King successfully accomplished the object of a long visit at Washington, in securing the organization of the United States Geological Exploration of the Fortieth Parallel, under his direction as geologist in charge, subject to the supervision of Major-Gen. A. A. Humphreys, at that time Chief of Engineers of the United States Army. This was a scientific work of great importance and practical value, requiring many years' service of a large corps of able assistants, the results of whose labors were published by the Engineer Bureau in a report comprising several large volumes with accompanying maps and illustrations, covering the topography, geology, and natural history of a cross-section of the country lying along the fortieth parallel of latitude, and reaching from the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains to the western slope of the Sierra Nevada.

One very notable and highly sensational result of Mr. King's work on the fortieth-parallel exploration, and one which gave him much fame both in this country and elsewhere, was his startling discovery of the great swindle in the "salted" diamond fields of Wyoming, late in 1872. Early in that year it had been noised abroad that a great find of diamonds and other precious stones had been discovered somewhere in the far West, presumably in Arizona, although the precise locality was most carefully concealed. A large number of the gems, unquestionably of considerable value, had been carried from the alleged fields to San Francisco and New York, where the most influential capitalists, who had been led to believe the favorable reports thus far presented, had invested large sums of money in the purchase of the ground said to be diamond-bearing, and were preparing for the intended operation of the so-called mines on a large scale, which would soon have caused a rush of fortune-hunters and adventurers comparable to the California immigration in '49 and '50. Through information gained by one of his assistants, it suddenly came to Mr. King's knowledge that the locality of the alleged diamond find was not in Arizona, but in Wyoming, and really within the region of his own field work of the fortieth-parallel survey. Not then suspecting a fraud, but, on the contrary, having good reason to regard as trustworthy the favorable reports of one or more well-known engineers who, shortly before, had visited the fields with the leading promoters of the enterprise, Mr. King hastened to the designated locality, not with the expectation of unearthing a swindle, but for the purpose of studying the new diamond field, and making his official report on what then seemed to be a discovery of great national importance.

He set out promptly with two or three assistants, and duly reached his destination, following the trail without difficulty from a station of the Union Pacific Railroad in Wyoming. He soon found diamonds and rubies in abundance, but his suspicions were quickly aroused by the observation that the plainly visible precious stones lay directly upon the hard surface of rock, where Nature alone could never have placed or left them, and that none could be found in the earth or on the underlying bedrock, where, had the occurrence been genuine, the inevitable laws of Nature must have carried them; with the further observation that the ant-hills, built of small pebbles mined by the ants, which were found to bear rubies on their surfaces or in holes (artificially made with a small stick), invariably showed in close proximity the storm-worn footprints of mankind, while the other ant-hills, without such sign of human tracks, and not pierced by any artificial holes, were also without rubies or precious stones of any sort. Thorough investigation, following the lines indicated by these suspicions, soon proved beyond any doubt that some designing hand had "salted" the ground with deliberate fraudulent intent.

This disclosure created a great sensation in this country and in Europe, whence evidence was soon forthcoming that the stones used in the salting had been bought in large quantities at London and Paris during the preceding winter, presumably by the originators of the swindle. The practical result of Mr. King's disclosure of the facts in this case was one of inestimable value, possibly more in money than the whole cost of the entire exploration of the fortieth-parallel expedition. Had the fraud remained undisclosed till the following spring, large sums of money would have been wasted in the costly purchase of worthless property and in fruitless prospecting, not only by capitalists, but by thousands of disappointed and ruined fortune-seekers.

The leading and most active, even though wholly innocent, promoter of the diamond-mining enterprise, by no means necessarily a participant in the original swindle or cognizant of the fraud until disclosed by King, was a very well-known native Californian, one of the earliest gold-seekers, and a lifelong projector and operator of mining schemes, whose name has ever since been more or less intimately associated with this celebrated case of diamond-salting. It is a notably curious coincidence that these two men—Roberts, who helped blow the bubble, and King, who caused it to vanish—should depart this life on the same day and at nearly the same time, twenty-nine years after the events in which they were thus concerned and so strangely related. Within two or three hours after King's death in Arizona, Roberts died in New York city. Their names and their death announcements, with obituary notices, stand closely side by side in parallel and adjoining columns of the *Times* newspaper of Wednesday, Christmas morning.

After the completion of his work on the fortieth-parallel exploration, Mr. King undertook the organization of the United States Geological Survey, as now existing, and became its first director, remaining in this service several years, after which he resigned, in order to give needed attention to various enterprises in which he had become interested or professionally engaged. Since that time he had followed his profession more or less closely until disabled by his last illness, mainly in the directing of large mining or other business enterprises in the Western and Southwestern States and Mexico, and also as skilled adviser in the practical applications of scientific knowledge, having in later years been much engaged as expert in very important mining litigations. Meantime, he also devoted much time and effort to purely scientific research and study, and made some very important contributions to knowledge and to the current literature of the period, especially in the field of physical geology.

Although Mr. King gained his highest distinction in scientific pursuits, he would undoubtedly have achieved great eminence in any other vocation which he might have chosen. He possessed marvellous intellectual versatility, and seemed to be endowed with the gift of genius, especially in the æsthetic faculty. In all matters of taste and beauty his perceptions were clear and fine, and his judgment was just. He excelled especially as a critic, both in art and in literature, possessing a brilliant mind, quick in intelligent apprehension, with a sparkling wit always bubbling over, great facility in thought, and rare felicity in expression. In conversation, whether grave or gay, he was a delightful companion. He was a man of charming personal-

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ity, of noble and gentle spirit, a most kind, generous, and constant friend, whose loss will be lamented by many of all sorts and conditions of men, both in the very highest and the very humblest walks of life, as of one upon whose like they may never look again. J. D. H.

M. BERTHELOT.

ITHACA, December 23, 1901.

Visitors to Paris who have frequented the Latin Quarter must often have met, somewhere on the way between the Institute and the Collège de France, a little bent old man, with one shoulder higher than the other, wearing a long, black coat, no longer new, hanging loosely about his slender figure. With short, quick steps he makes his way along the narrow sidewalks of the Rue Mazarine and the Rue de l'École de Médecine, elbowed by passers-by who do not even turn to look at him, and who take him, no doubt, for some ancient clerk hurrying to his office. In reality, this ancient clerk is a professor going to his lecture-room. The little shabbily dressed old man, with the gently meditative expression and the acute, ironic glance, is beyond question the greatest living French scientist—a professor in the Collège de France, a member of the Academy of Sciences, the Academy of Medicine, and of the French Academy, a member for life of the Senate, an ex-Minister, and a member of almost all the learned societies of Europe—Marcellin Berthelot.

A few weeks ago Berthelot's disciples and admirers assembled in the huge amphitheatre of the Sorbonne to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the great chemist's entrance upon his scientific career. It was on May 27, 1850, that M. Berthelot presented to the Academy of Sciences his first memoir, upon the liquefaction of gases; and it was on February 23, 1851, that he was appointed to his first academic position, that of Assistant in Chemistry at the Collège de France. Since that time he has, without interruption, published memoirs and delivered courses of lectures, and may be said to have reconstituted the science of chemistry in France. The audience at the Sorbonne was of the same nature as that which, nine years ago in the same place, acclaimed and honored Pasteur. The President of the Republic presided, assisted by the entire Cabinet, by representatives of all the departments of the Government, and by delegates from the learned societies of France and of foreign nations. Addresses were delivered by M. Leygues, the Minister of Public Instruction; by Messrs. Darboux, Moissan, and Fouqué, representing the Academy of Sciences; by M. Gaston Paris, the Director of the Collège de France; by Dr. Guyon, the delegate from the Academy of Medicine; and, finally, by M. Berthelot himself. Professor Fischer read an address on behalf of the Royal Academy of Prussia; Professor Ramsay, the discoverer of argon, spoke for the Royal Society; and Professor Lieben for the Imperial Academy of Vienna. At the close of the celebration President Loubet presented M. Berthelot with a commemorative medal, designed by Chaplain, representing the scientist in his laboratory, seated in a familiar attitude at his desk. Behind him stand two female figures, the one holding a flag and a laurel, the other a mirror. Their names are given in the motto inscribed beneath, "Pour la Patrie et la Vérité."

Berthelot is a remarkable type of modern scientist. He has pursued scientific researches with distinction, and has still found time to indulge in the speculations of philosophy and to discharge the duties of citizenship and of public life. His principal work has been in chemistry. In the space of fifty years he has submitted to the Academy of Sciences more than 600 memoirs, besides publishing treatises on organic chemistry, on chemical mechanics, on agricultural chemistry, and works on the philosophy of science and on the history of alchemy. He has thus treated a wide range of subjects, and, thanks to the richness of his intellectual resources and to his prodigious capacity for work, he has left his mark upon every branch of chemistry. "You are one of the last encyclopædists of our science," declared his disciple, M. Moissan, in his address at the celebration.

Nevertheless, by reason of two epoch-making discoveries, M. Berthelot's reputation as a chemist is especially associated with two subjects. The one is the synthesis of organic compounds; the other is thermochemistry. At a time when all scientists agreed with Lavoisier that chemistry was purely an analytical science—that it could decompose into elements, but not reconstruct—Berthelot was one of the first to demonstrate that chemistry could also perform syntheses. In 1862 he announced the discovery that acetylene could be formed from its elements, carbon and hydrogen, by the agency of the electric arc. To the statement of Lavoisier, "The process of chemistry is to divide, subdivide, and resubdivide," Berthelot replied with the declaration, "Chemistry creates its object. It can restore what it has destroyed. Synthesis extends its conquests from the elements to the most complicated substances, without possibility of assigning a definite limit." Berthelot created a whole series of substances previously unknown, and reproduced artificially fruit acids, perfumes, fats, and dyes. Commerce owes to him the elaboration of new dye-stuffs, and medicine a host of new drugs. The second great conception attached to his name is that of thermochemistry, which he created and then developed during a period of thirty-five years. He showed that chemical combinations are ruled by a constant law, which may be thus expressed: "Of several possible reactions, the one which occurs is that which disengages the greatest amount of heat." Berthelot's discoveries in thermochemistry led him to investigations in explosives. During the war of 1870 he placed his chemical knowledge at the service of his country, and later the continuation of his researches carried on by Vieille led to the invention of smokeless powder. But only a professional chemist could enumerate all his contributions to agricultural and industrial chemistry. "With Pasteur," said Jules Lemaître, in his address welcoming him into the Academy, "you have been of all men in the nineteenth century perhaps the most useful to your fellow-beings."

Berthelot, indeed, has never separated scientific theory from practical results in the direction of material benefit and intellectual and social emancipation. A few years ago, when Brunetière, in one of those oratorical formulas of which he has the secret, spoke of "the bankruptcy of science," it was to Berthelot that the free-thinkers and the thorough-going democrats instinctively turned for an example and a response to the sophisms of the reactionary writer. Berthelot believes in science as he believes in reason and in the indefinite progress of humanity. In this he is the heir of the Encyclopædists of the eighteenth century, whose universal intelligence and generous optimism he shares. He holds that science has introduced into the world a new principle, destined to serve as the base of society. "This principle," he has written, "proclaimed a century ago by the French Revolution in the name of justice and reason, becomes every year more evident and more cogent; it sweeps aside the doctrine of divine right, borrowed from the mysticism of the Church, the hereditary pretensions of the old aristocracies, and the insolent claims of the plutocracies of to-day." But the positivism of M. Berthelot has nothing of the fanatic violence of the French radicals who claim him as one of themselves. In this respect he shows the influence of Renan, his friend and confidant for fifty years. The two met at the age of twenty, just after Renan had left the Seminary of St. Sulpice. They at once detected their intellectual brotherhood, and thereafter continued to live in entire communion despite the divergence of their studies. Some of Renan's most characteristic views in philosophy and science are expressed in his numerous letters to Berthelot.

On one occasion Berthelot said of himself, "From the very beginning I have been devoted to the cult of pure science. I have never entered into the conflict of practical interests which divide man and man. I have lived in my laboratory, surrounded only by a few pupils, who have been at the same time my friends." In this statement he was far from doing himself justice. In fact, of all French scientists, Berthelot is the one who has participated the most in public affairs. During the war of 1870 he manufactured dynamite, and attempted to set up electrical communication between Paris and the provinces by means of the frozen surface of the Seine; in the attempt to blow up the Prussian battery at Châtillon he descended into the mines at Clamart, risking his life like the most obscure volunteer. Later, upon the foundation of the republic, he was called to the Senate, where he took his seat with the Advanced Left, voting with the Radicals, and taking part in all the debates, in which his position as scientist and educator gave his voice authority. In 1886 he became Minister of Public Instruction in the Goblet Ministry. Still later, when M. Bourgeois found no diplomat willing to act as Minister of Foreign Affairs in his cabinet of Radicals, he turned to Berthelot. It must be added that the great chemist hardly distinguished himself in this unwonted capacity; fortunately for France, the Ministry lasted only a short time.

At present M. Berthelot is seventy-six. The hostility aroused in certain quarters by his militant rationalism and his radical politics has gradually subsided. At one time he was reproached with fondness for public notice and with too great a desire for emolument and place—he who never took out a patent on discoveries which have

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brought in millions to others. A scoffing journalist once even proposed for him the epitaph, "Here lies Berthelot, in the only place that he never solicited." The French Academy, to which he was elected last year, refused him, seven years ago, the seat of Renan, to which he had so strong a claim. Latterly, however, he has lived in a more peaceful atmosphere. His life is now tranquil and happy; his name is honored. His time is divided between his researches in the laboratory, his lectures at the Collège de France, his duties as Academician, and his family life. His numerous children all show something of their father's tastes. His two daughters have married scientists, and his four sons have entered scientific, literary, or political life. His reputation and his personality are no longer the subject of contention. He has succeeded, in the grateful admiration of France, to the place held by Pasteur; and the other day, at the celebration which crowned his scientific career, M. Leygues could say without exaggeration that his place was already fixed, "in the serene peace of history and immortality."

OTHON GUERLAC.

REVIEW OF ITALIAN FICTION.

ALASSIO, December, 1901.

Of two of the principal among recent Italian novels, Fogazzaro's 'Piccolo Mondo Moderno' and 'Il Fuoco' of Gabriele D'Annunzio, we can have nothing to say here; the former has already been separately treated in these pages, and the *succès de scandale* of the latter was long ago a stench in delicate nostrils. There are two writers, whose achievements we have always been glad to chronicle, who this year furnish us nothing. For the last two or three years the *Nuova Antologia* has promised as of imminent publication 'La Duchessa di Leyra' by Verga, the first chapter of which has, however, not yet appeared; while Federico De Roberto has given himself entirely to psychology and literary criticism. *Noblesse oblige*, and the author of "I Vicerè' should not neglect the fields where he is inimitable for those where many another is as good as he.

Our French brethren say that no man is necessary, and it is true that, no matter who may disappear, the crop of novels does not fail. Among the veterans of literature there are two who have produced works that cannot be overlooked. Matilde Serao is almost at her very best in 'Suor Giovanna della Croce,' the story, simple, but deeply pathetic, of a nun thrown with needless brutality upon the world by the suppression of the convents, and sinking gradually into the most abject misery. The book is not so much a connected story as a series of pictures, and these are more than once open to the objection that the setting is finished at the expense of the main figure; but none the less the impression made is strong and lasting. It is perhaps a pity that the subject should be one about which party rage blinds so many on both sides; but it is also fortunate that the ordinary reader is a human being before he is a partisan.

This year, too, Luigi Capuana has made good his reputation of being one of the best among Italian novelists. His short stories, 'Le Paesane' and 'Nuove Paesane,' for instance, were always sufficient to justify the consideration in which he is held; but some of the longer works, and, in particular, one which has been counted his masterpiece, 'Giacinta,' while possessing undeniable qualities, has seemed to us too rank a flower of the Zola hot-house to be pleasing to an unheated judgment. But 'Il Marchese di Roccaverdina' is of quite another and higher order. It is a powerful and convincing story of the Nemesis that pursues the murderer. The scene is laid in a town of southeastern Sicily, and the protagonist is a *marchese contadino*—a sort of Italian equivalent of the typical British squire of a century ago, or the French *hobereau*, only less boisterous than the former and without the suggestion of caricature that attaches to the latter. The story of his crime and its punishment is told with the greatest sobriety of manner, with commendable reserve in descriptions, and without abuse of what is called psychology. And yet the style is of admirable finish, the descriptions are vivid, and we are in the secret of the moving springs of the figure whose action we watch from end to end with unflagging interest. The poet Panzacchi has revealed to us the care with which Signor Capuana polishes each sentence, but there is here no evidence of labor; the touch seems always light, sure, and spontaneous. This has always been characteristic of the author's short stories, and is still in the latest collection, published under the title of 'Il Benefattore.'

We had formerly occasion to remark on the incredible corruption of the clergy, as represented in Carlo Del Balzo's 'Gente di Chiesa.' It recalled the 'Pot-Bouille' of Zola. We could not believe that the shepherds of the flock were, one and all, so much blacker than the blackest of their sheep, but we lacked the key to the mystery. The author's new novel, 'Le Ostriche,' a story of political life in the Italian Parliament, has, however, made everything clear. Sig. Del Balzo is a Deputy who sits on the extreme left of the Chamber, and it is simply his *métier* to represent the Church as a putrefying mass in a world that has great need of being made over by reformers of his way of thinking. This time he has fallen foul of Crispi and the bank scandals. We should not wish to imply that Sig. Del Balzo is altogether wrong in his views; but what his novels gain in intensity of coloring from the heat and force of his convictions, they lose as works of art. Still, in spite of bad construction, of clumsiness, and ingenuousness, they are readable, even to those who cannot see things as does a Deputy of the Left. They are clever; but, after all, they scarcely belong to literature.

Sig. Ugo Ojetti is a good critic of art, and a newspaper correspondent of unusual culture and gifts of expression. He knows so much, and can do well so many things, that it may be permitted to wish that he would abstain from writing novels. 'Il Vecchio,' to which we formerly called attention, was but a dismal performance, and the present one, 'Il Giuoco dell' Amore,' is even worse, though more pleasantly written. The experienced novel-reader will find in the preface one of those apologies that reveal just what he is to expect. It is here said that the book "will be called, and perhaps even also thought, frivolous, skeptical, and useless." After that he knows that it will shock some readers, and disgust others. In this case, the writer does not—to give the devil his due—pretend that he has a purpose so lofty as to excuse the unpleasantnesses by the way. In truth, the mouth is simply speaking out of the abundance of the heart. We scarcely know how to characterize the story, unless indirectly. In a series of letters written from America to the *Corriere della Sera*, and since then published in book form, Sig. Ojetti describes a visit to Harvard University. Bourget, in his 'Outre-Mer,' had been the dupe of the Harvard student (*si figura!*), and had spoken of him as clean-minded. Sig. Ojetti knew human nature better than that, and, being together with some of these students, he gave the conversation a pornographic turn, so deftly, so blandly, that some of the youth fell into the trap, and tried to cap the foreigner's pleasant stories. Sig. Ojetti triumphantly publishes his discovery that the Harvard student is not only no cleaner-minded than himself, but that he is really worse, as he adds hypocrisy to his other frailties. You have here the measure of the man. If any Harvard Tartuffe cares to know of what Sig. Ojetti is capable in his serious moments, he can read 'Il Giuco dell' Amore.' For any other it will be sufficient to say that the conduct of the *Giuocatore* quite justifies the up-to-date definition of love in the last chapter, as "a simple and brief act, like a pressure of the hand between two sympathetic persons, or a gay and succulent lunch between two friends, of which, after its digestion, a pleasant memory remains, if not also a gentle gratitude towards the companion."

After this it is refreshing to read something less modern, especially if, like 'Il Riscatto' of Arturo Graf (published first in the *Nuova Antologia*), it be delicate, charming in form, full of poetry, and clean. The book reminds one of a minuet in its simplicity, in a certain slow rhythmical stateliness, and in its grace. It is the autobiography of a man, still young, who has inherited from a long line of ancestors a tendency to suicide, and who is redeemed by love at the moment when, by irresistible force, he seemed about to follow the example of his forefathers. There have not been wanting those who have objected to this solution, as rather sentimental than scientific, since hereditary madness, no more than consumption, can be cured by love; to which the author, in an appendix to the volume, replies, in effect, that that remains to be proved—that no one can say whether hereditary suicide is physical or psychical heredity, and that therefore no one can deny the healing force of a psychical remedy. We fancy that the conclusion of the book, whether in itself satisfactory or not, is but of secondary importance with most of its readers, its principal charm being rather independent of the question of probability.

Emilio De Marchi, as the author of 'Demetrio Pinelli' and 'Il Cappello del Prete,' both of which have more than once received the honors of translation, deserves—perhaps one should say, deserved—a more distinguished consideration among his country people than he enjoyed during his lifetime. His recent death called forth in the Milanese press expressions of regret due rather to the man than to the writer; certainly, no stranger would have gleaned from

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these notices that Italy had lost one of her most agreeable novelists. Another proof of his value has just been given us in his last work, published with a preface by Gaetano Negri. Had the author lived long enough to see through the press 'Col Fuoco non si Scherza,' he might have removed from the concluding chapters some evidences of hasty composition, but he could scarcely have improved the main part, in which the qualities that made his earlier works attractive have found their fullest expression. For the benefit of those who have learned to appreciate the Lake of Como from Cadenabbia, we may say that the scene of the story is there and in the neighboring Tremezzo, and that, without too much labor in descriptions, it gives a vivid sense of the exquisite beauty of that region.

Sig. Rovetta's peculiar talent shows to better advantage in depicting the sham politician patriot, as in 'La Baraonda,' or the sham literary man, as in 'L'Idolo,' than in representing the goodness of the two ladies, the elderly and the young, in 'La Signorina.' In order not to deter readers who may have already admired Sig. Rovetta's performances, it may be said that these two are offset by another lady of a quite refreshing badness, on the success of whose portrait the author may be fairly congratulated.

Italian novelists, fortunately, are not bound by the French convention in matter of subject, and, in point of fact, only one of the works before us is occupied with the Gallic trinity—though that one is almost worthy of Huysmans at his pornographic worst. The result is a variety of themes as great as that of our English novel; among which one, not worn threadbare, is evident in the title of the Marquis Filippo Crispolti's 'Un Duello.' This is so far from being the charge of a prosecutor that some readers might close the book in doubt as to its moral teaching. The subject gets exhaustively treated from every point of view; and though it was finally clear that the author intended that our verdict should be against the practice of duelling, not only the judicial impartiality he has displayed, but the sympathies and antipathies aroused by his characters tended to make us hesitate. We hold that one of the chief disadvantages of a minute analysis of the motives and feelings of a protagonist in a novel is a resultant dimness of outline and loss of impressiveness. The Marchese Crispolti's protagonist is so well explained, and has such a nice balance of weaknesses and qualities, that we were uncertain on occasion of his value as a hero, and the principle he has espoused suffered with our estimate of him. Nevertheless, the novel is an exceedingly good one, marked by an unusual distinction of tone, and, among other merits, giving a striking picture of Roman society.

Grazia Deledda, whose rare charm of manner we have on a former occasion remarked, has given us several remarkable delineations of life in Sardinia. The first chapter of 'Elias Portolu,' if we were to go no further than that, conveys a notion of the state of mind as to right and wrong, as to duty, property, and human life, of the rude population of the mountain region about Nuoro. They are ignorant and superstitious. Their ideas are crude and often false, but there is in these simple creatures such a flavor of the soil, something so elemental and in harmony with the child that is in us all, that we find ourselves loving them involuntarily and a little to our own surprise. The witchery, however, is not so much in them as in the hand that has drawn their portrait. Grazia Deledda has the poet's gift; her touch converts what she sees and feels into a thing of beauty. And she loves her Sardinia even to the remotest recesses of its mountains, and its inhabitants, especially the lowly; and she knows the processes of their minds, the cravings of their hearts. Hers is not a laughing muse; but the humble tragedies she chooses for her subject—set in wild landscapes, where the vegetation, the atmosphere, the light, the perfumes have all a character of their own, and narrated with a grace that is equally individual—are as far as possible removed from the commonplace that haunts and wearies our daily walk and conversation.

Sig. Olivieri San Giacomo continues to furnish stories of military life which have interest for the foreigner as showing the daily routine and much of the spirit of the Italian soldier and officer. They seem to be popular in the army, but, though easy enough reading, never rise above mediocrity, either in conception or in execution. We had formerly pleasure in speaking of the promise of another writer, a young one, Angiolo Silvio Novaro, whose last book, however, 'L'Angelo Risvegliato,' is a sad disappointment. We say nothing more about it, in the hope that his next work will fulfil the expectation awakened by the first. Sig. Avancinio Avancini, whose 'Idolo Infranto' has already been favorably noticed by us, has given a volume of short stories, 'I Racconti dell' Allegre Compare,' that for clear directness of style, for good humor, vivacity, picturesqueness, could scarcely be bettered. This is one of the good books of the year. We could wish that the author were at times a little less *bourgeois* in his limitations, or at least that he would forgive the Milanese aristocracy that he was not born in their ranks. The defect, however, is not a serious one; indeed, when he brings before us palpitating with life Don Ramiro Gonzalo, Prince of Boscofiorito, it is not a defect at all, but a quality for which we are duly thankful.

In marked contrast to these admirable stories are those in the volume entitled 'Silvano,' by Orazio Grande. They will scarcely appeal to the lay reader, and among the professed *gens de lettres* they will please the section with whom manner, or rather mannerism, is more agreeable than simplicity. They are like water-colors with dim contours, washed-out tints, lackadaisical attitudes, and every possible prettyism of style. We mention them because they possess not only a certain grace and refinement, but something which makes us believe that, if the author were subjected to a sound régime with perhaps the aid of a tonic, he might become capable of really good work.

We pause, but not from want of material. We have said enough to show that the new efflorescence in Italian literature gives no sign of diminution. With every year, however, one great change in the intellectual life of the country becomes more apparent. In the days when the peninsula was cut up into a number of States, it was no more than natural that there should be several literary, scientific, or artistic centres. After the unification of Italy, these cities remained as centres, and, notwithstanding occasional jealousies, this dispersion of intellectual forces had the advantage that in none of the larger cities was there the dull provincialism of which people complain in the cities of France outside of Paris. The fact that of all the works enumerated in this communication, only one (that of Sig. San Giacomo) was not published in Milan, would indicate that the old order of things is passing away. Their authors, Sicilian, Neapolitan, Tuscan, seem more and more to gravitate to the Lombard capital, which more and more becomes the city of initiative, the centre of Italian intelligence. And this without as yet deadening the life of other centres. Rome is not merely in name a capital; Turin has a strong independent existence, an admirably alert intelligence, a power of originating and carrying out good ideas that makes it hard to say that she is second to any other city; Florence, Naples, Venice—they are all instinct with new life. It is only that Milan, in many fields of activity, is acquiring a sort of primacy. Fortunately, with the quickened means of communication, commerce between the great cities is lively, so that the blood flows freely from the centre to the extremities. Visions of ancient empire have imposed Rome upon the Italians as the seat of their Government of infinite aspirations; it was perhaps a superstition that held the old throne necessary for the new domination; but it is the simplest of natural laws that makes the intelligence of to-day, forgetting regional jealousies, and recognizing the substantial unity of the regenerate Italy, seek its proper breathing space in the ancient ducal capital of Lombardy.

S. K.

Correspondence.

CONTINENTAL EXPANSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The extract which you publish from *La Revue Américaine*, expressing the sentiments of South Americans towards the United States, impels me to offer a few remarks upon a letter signed "P. J.," which appeared in your issue of December 12, that otherwise might have been allowed to pass unnoticed.

Five or six years ago an American gentleman who came to reside in Canada for business purposes, expressed to me his astonishment at the feeling of aversion to his own country which he found prevalent here. I pointed out to him that there were sufficient reasons for this feeling in the history of our relations during the past century and a quarter, in the unneighborly policy observed by successive American governments towards us, both in tariff and in other matters, and also in the hostility of American public opinion towards Great Britain. A further cause of irritation is the habit of American writers ignoring the right of Canada to an independent existence upon this continent, treating our future as a matter to be determined by the United States.

Your correspondent "P. J." says:

"Our destiny is at some, perhaps not remote, time to absorb all of the continent north of us. Keeping closely to our con-

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tinental position, this would be easy to accomplish, even if opposed by the whole power of Great Britain. The seacoast States could defend themselves while the interior States were overruning Canada; but if the time should come when Great Britain was not able to maintain all of its possessions, the annexation of Canada could be made peaceably."

A Canadian might say with Parson Wilbur—

> —"thet all this big talk of our destinies
> Is half on it ign'ance, an' t' other half rum";

but what is your opinion of it, sir, you who print the above without comment and without protest? We are accustomed to menace and insult from such papers as the New York *Sun* and from such demagogues as Bourke Cockran. Do you think a widespread repetition of their sentiments in respectable quarters can fail to produce deep resentment here?

The improved tone of the American press of late towards England has led to a more friendly feeling in Canada for the United States, but there can be no cordiality on our part without a great change in your attitude towards us. We prize our liberty and autonomy as highly as any people that ever lived; we are firmly loyal to the British crown; and we are determined to build up a great independent and self-governing British Power on the north of this continent—a free community within a world-encircling empire.

American policy towards Canada has hitherto afforded a striking example of how a little mind may go with great possessions. The last thing we expect from the United States is magnanimity, yet that is the first essential towards genuine and permanent good feeling between us and our neighbors. R. W. SHANNON.

OTTAWA, CANADA, December 24, 1901.

[Our opinion is, that our correspondent "P. J." was addressing a military *argumentum ad hominem* to the champions of colonial expansion; further, that he would not be found to be in favor of the use of force to attain that fusion of Canada and the United States which he might, in a perfectly friendly and neighborly spirit, believe to be naturally inevitable. But we do not hold ourselves responsible for the views of our correspondents.—ED. NATION.]

CANADA AND ALASKA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A short time since, the Toronto *Globe* printed a rumor from Ottawa that Canada was about to press again her recent claim to a portion of Alaska, and a second time to urge the United States to submit this demand to the arbitration of foreigners for settlement. But there is nothing in this demand to arbitrate.

Russia and England, after protracted negotiations, agreed by treaty, in 1825, upon a line to divide their respective North American possessions. This frontier was drawn from the Arctic Ocean, along the meridian of 141 degrees west longitude to Mount Saint Elias, and then was to follow the crest of the mountains running parallel to the coast, to the head of the Portland canal, and down that sinuosity to the ocean in fifty-four degrees forty minutes north latitude. But if at any point the crest of the mountains proved to be at a greater distance than ten marine leagues from the shore, then the frontier should run parallel to the sinuosities of the coast at a distance of ten marine leagues inland, but never further than that from the shore.

This gave to Russia a strip of territory, or *lisière*, from Mount Saint Elias to the Portland canal of sufficient width to entirely exclude the British Empire from any access to tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. And that England was so excluded from contact with the sea north of fifty-four degrees forty minutes, the English and the Canadian Governments recognized, both on their maps and by the acts of their officials. This strip of territory, or *lisière*, became ours when we bought Alaska in 1867 from Russia, and we succeeded to all her rights of sovereignty.

If the claim of Canada—that she is entitled to many outlets upon tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes—were submitted to arbitration, and the judges decided anything in favor of Canada, it would be a clear gain for her. And if the judgment gave Canada but a single port, like Pyramid Harbor or Dyea on the Lynn Canal, for instance, the present and future value to the United States of the Alaskan *lisière* would be greatly impaired. The evidence in the case is all in favor of the United States, and shows that they are entitled, by long, uninterrupted occupancy and other rights, to an unbroken strip of territory on the mainland from Mount Saint Elias down to the Portland Canal. There is no more reason for this country to agree to refer its right to the possession and sovereignty of this unbroken Alaskan *lisière* to the decision of foreigners, than would be the case if the English Empire advanced a demand to sovereignty over the coast of the Carolinas or the port of Baltimore, and suggested that the claim should be referred to the judgment of the subjects of third Powers. Whether the frontier should pass over a certain mountain or through a given gorge is a proper subject for settlement by a mutual survey. But by no possibility has Canada any right to territory touching tide water above fifty-four degrees forty minutes. The United States should not consent to submit such a proposition to arbitration. T. W. BALCH.

PHILADELPHIA, December 27, 1901.

BYRON, COLERIDGE, AND DON JUAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Prothero, in the fifth volume of his excellent edition of Byron's 'Letters and Journals,' gives the following note at page 243: "D. Juan Tenorio of Seville was the hero of the Spanish mystery-play, the *Atheista Fulminato* (see Coleridge's 'Biographia Literaria,' vol. ii., pp. 262 seqq.). The mystery was dramatized by Gabriel Tellez, *i. e.*, Tirso de Molina," etc.

The existence of such a Spanish mystery-play has long been denied by the best foreign critics, but they have not explained the origin of the idea. Puibusque, in his 'Histoire Comparée des Littératures Espagnole et Française' (1843), first spread this story in Europe. He makes the same statement as that given above (vol. ii., pp. 239, 467), and quotes as his authority "Coleridge, commentator of Byron's complete works," whose note he saw in the French translation of B. Laroche. Puibusque evidently mistook an illustrative passage from the 'Biographia Literaria' for an editor's note. He gives plausibility to his statement by quoting scenes from this alleged "Ateista Fulminado."

Coleridge makes his original statement (in the 'Biog. Lit.') in the criticism on Bertram. He mentions "an old Spanish play entitled *Atheista Fulminato*, formerly, and perhaps still, acted in the churches and monasteries of Spain, and which, under various names (Don Juan, the Libertine, etc.), has had its day of favor in every country throughout Europe." Later he quotes parts of different scenes, apparently his own translation from this Spanish play; and, several pages farther on, he speaks of Shadwell's "Libertine," "an adaptation of the *Atheista Fulminato* to the English stage in the reign of Charles the Second." But what Coleridge does not state is that the scenes which he quotes are nothing but extracts from "The Libertine," word for word! Moreover, the statement about the Spanish "Atheista" is apparently nothing but a confused reminiscence of the following sentence from Shadwell's preface to his play: "And I have been told by a worthy Gentleman, that many Years agone (when first a Play was made upon this Story in Italy), he has seen it acted there by the name of *Atheisto Fulminato*, in Churches on *Sundays*, as a Part of Devotion," etc. This religious play was, of course, subsequent, not prior to, the Spanish drama said to be by Téllez.

We see that the whole myth about an early Spanish mystery-play is based on a strange perversion of Shadwell by Coleridge, who did not see that *fulminato* is Italian, not Spanish. Puibusque, in repeating the error, gave the word its Spanish termination, which served to strengthen the roots of the legend. S. G. MORLEY.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY, December 16, 1901.

COMPLAINT AND REPLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of the 'Queen's Comrade,' which appears in your paper of the 14th inst., there is one sentence which, more than all others, is quite unjustifiable. Your critic says that such history as the volumes contain "treats chiefly of *things* that either never happened at all, or, having happened, were of little account." As to the first part of this sentence, any reader will see that authorities are given for every statement made; and, as for the second, the downfall of James, the Revolution, the reigns of William and Mary and Anne, are of some little account. As your reviewer's remark, which is neither true nor just, is calculated to injure the sale of the book, I hope you will have the kindness to insert this correction in your pages.

Faithfully yours,

FITZGERALD MOLLOY.

90 PORTSDOWN ROAD, LONDON W.,
November 28, 1901.

[Our meaning was, that of the history which the book contains, much, like all history of intrigue, cabal, and conspiracy, had, of necessity, to do with many things which never came to pass, or, having come to pass, were of little account. We never, of course, intended to refer to

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faits accomplis like the Revolution and the events of the reigns preceding and following it, but to the workings of the under world and the back-stairs, with which the present volumes have very properly to do.—Ed. Nation.]

"TO CHANCER."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the 'Century Dictionary' we read:

"Chancer, *v. t.* [Formed from *chancery.*] To adjust according to principles of equity, as would be done by a court of chancery: as, to *chancer* a forfeiture. *Mass. Prov. Laws.*"

And in the 'Oxford Dictionary':

"Chancer, *v. rare.* [? f. Chancery.] *trans.* To 'tax' (an account or bill of costs)."

The editors of the Century content themselves with a vague reference; Dr. Murray gives but a single quotation (from an American work, dated 1798); and in both dictionaries *to chancer* is regarded as certainly or probably formed from the noun *chancery.* Of the fact that *to chancer* is ultimately derived from the noun *chancery,* there can be no doubt; but it appears, from a work only recently published, that there was formerly a verb, the existence of which does not seem to have been suspected, namely, *to chancery.* There are many examples of this verb in the work first quoted below:

"The deffend[t] desiring a chancery the plantiff Gonn & not to be found The Court ordered a respit of y[e] execution till the 9 of october next to wch time this Court Adjourn themselues [& chanceried the damage Additionall to 40[s] only] . . . The plaintiff desired his bond might be chanceried The Court hauing heard the plaintiff & defend[t]s pleas as to the Chancering of the bond did chancery it to sixty-eight pounds flue shilling[s] & tenn penc mony & Costs of Courts two pounds sixteen shillings & sixe pence. . . . In answer to the motion of Joseph Helljer The Court chanceried his bond to one hundred & eight pounds money & Costs of Courts." 1674, 1684, 1685, *Records of the Court of Assistants, Mass.* (1901), pp. 21, 261, 287.

"*And it is hereby further enacted* . . .

"That there be a high court of chancery within this province, who shall have power and authority to hear and determine all matters of equity, . . . *provided, nevertheless,* that the justices in any of the courts aforesaid, where the forfeiture of any penal bond is found, shall be and hereby are impowred to chancer the same unto the just debt and damages." 1692, *Acts & Resolves of the Prov. of Mass.* (1869), i. 75.

"*Be it enacted* . . . That in all cases brought or to be brought for tryal in the superiour court of judicature, . . . where the forfeiture or penalty annexed unto any articles, . . . shall be found by verdict of jury, . . . the justices of the said courts respectively where the tryal is had are hereby impowred and authorized to moderate the rigour of the law, and on consideration of such cases, according to equity and good conscience to chancer the forfeiture, . . . and enter up judgement for the just debt and damages, and to award execution accordingly." 1698, *do.*, i. 356.

"Upon the humble petition of William Collins, of Newport, tanner, to this Assembly, for the chancerizing of two bonds, one of thirty-six pounds, five shillings, and one of twenty-five pounds; . . .

"This Assembly considering the matter, do order and enact, that the said bonds be by the Governor and council truly chancerized to the principal and interest, and entered on said bonds, signed by the recorder." 1707, *Rhode Island Col. Records* (1859), iv. 26.

"The case being called, . . . judgment was given for the appellee, in that the bond should be chancer'd; and that the costs and damages allowed the appellee should amount to £15 01 *s.*" 1709, *do.*, iv. 80.

"Upon the petition of Lt. Charles Whiting, praying that an arbitration bond . . . might be chancered: This Assembly hath considered that the said Watson shall recover by virtue of the judgment of said superiour court given upon said bond, the sum of four pounds seventeen shillings and five pence, and no more, and the said bond is hereby chancered and reduced to that sum." 1719, *Connecticut Col. R cords,* (1872), vi., 127.

"The appellant and appellee being duly heard, this Assembly do adjudge and decree. that the judgment of the General Court of Trials . . . be, and it is hereby chancerized down to twenty shillings." 1722, *R. I. Col. Rec.*, iv. 320.

"Whereupon it is resolved, that the aforesaid note is chancerable, and said judgment is hereby chancered to the sum given by the said arbitrators." 1726, *Ct. Col. Rec.*, vii. 74.

"It is not easily to be accounted for, how *E gland, France* and *Holland,* have tacitly allowed their several *American Colonies;* by *Laws* of their several Provinces, by *Chancerings* in their Courts of Judicature, and by *Custom;* to depreciate from Time to Time, the value of their original Denominations, to defraud their Principals and Creditors in *Europe.*" 1740, W. Douglass, *Discourse Concerning the Currenc es of the British Plantations in America,* p. 7.

"Voted that Messrs. Peter Gillman, Jotham Odiorne & Mr. Hunking Wentworth be a Comittee of this House to joyne such as the Hon[ble] the Council shall appoint to ascertain the vallue of money & Exch[a] for *chancering* the vallue of the bills of Credit." 1742, *New Hampshire Prov. Papers* (1871), v. 159.

"Resolved by this Assembly, that the bond recited in said petition, on which the judgment of the superior court referred to was rendered, be chancer'd down to the sum of sixty-two pounds lawful money." 1761, *Ct. Col. Rec.*, xi. 547.

"Upon the memorial of Caleb Turner . . . showing . . , That it so happened that said Peletiah's business required him to go to sea, and the stamp-act being about to take place he incautiously went to sea, so that the said bond became forfeited &c; praying that the sum might be chancered down &c., as per memorial on file: Resolved by this Assembly, that the said bond of recognizance be and the same is hereby chancered and abated down to the sum of twenty pounds lawful money only." 1768, *do.*, xiii. 110.

Of the six words which appear in these extracts, no fewer than five—*chancerable, chancering, chancerize, chancerizing,* and *to chancery*—have failed to obtain recognition in the dictionaries. Mr. John Noble, the editor of the work first quoted, tells me that *to chancer* is still heard in Massachusetts, though the verbal noun *chancering* is more common. On the other hand, from a Philadelphia lawyer I learn that he is not familiar with these words. Is it possible that the entire group of words is restricted to New England? Perhaps some of your readers learned in the law can give some further information.

Albert Matthews.

Boston, December 17, 1901.

THE KAIBEL CLASSICAL LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The writer has been asked to make known through the medium of your paper that the library of the late Dr. Kaibel, Professor of Greek and Latin at the University of Göttingen, will be offered for sale in its entirety, and that a manuscript catalogue in a few copies is being prepared, to be sent to libraries for inspection. Applications should be made to Prof. Dr. Carl Dziatzko, Universitäts-Bibliothekar, Göttingen, Germany. The library contains about 4,000 bound volumes in good condition, and some 3,000 to 4,000 pamphlets, and is particularly rich in periodicals, reproductions of inscriptions, and reprints.

Axel G. S. Josephson.

John Crerar Library, Chicago,
December 21, 1901.

Notes.

Howard Wilford Bell (London and New York) is engaged in a novel enterprise styled "The Unit Library," which is to consist of reprints of classic works (ancient and modern) in a uniform size of 4½ by 6⅝ inches, edited by William Laird Clowes and A. R. Waller. The print will be clear without display or ornament, and the price will be based on the "unit" of 25 pages, plus paper or cloth or leather binding. The first hundred books already announced lead off with Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' and end with Rousseau's 'Confessions.' The experiment will be watched with interest.

Another "unit" system is to be employed by the New England Historic Genealogical Society of Boston in undertaking the publication of the vital records of towns in Massachusetts (some 190 in number) whose Records are not already printed or on the way to be. Each town is estimated to require an average of 150 printed pages, octavo; and subscriptions to the series will be received at the rate of one cent a page, which includes binding. This is expected to meet the cost of 600 copies. The Records will not be brought down beyond 1845, after which date duplicate copies were filed with the Secretary of the Commonwealth. Communications should be addressed to Henry Ernest Woods, editor, No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston.

Benjamin H. Sanborn & Co., Boston, have in preparation an 'Atlas of the Geography and History of the Ancient World,' in forty-eight maps and plans.

'Deutschland in China, 1900-1901,' is the title of an elaborately illustrated work, to be published under Government supervision and the general editorship of Count Waldersee, in the near future, and intended to be practically the permanent and semi-official record of the German expedition to China. The letterpress itself consists of thirteen chapters from the pens of official participants, and the illustrations (published by the house of August Bogel, Düsseldorf) have been prepared by or under the direction of the battle painter Roscholl, who himself took part in the expedition. The volume will cost thirty marks, and will not be obtainable through the regular book trade until the participants in the expedition and the various libraries have been supplied.

Among the novelties of the ever youthful *Almanach de Gotha,* for 1902, in its 139th year (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), is a calendar of princely and noble birthdays which editors, court officials, and others, it is suggested, may find handy. There is also a new list of orders. The King and Queen of Italy, and Prince George, the ruler of Crete, furnish three of the four regulation portraits. Under Holland is given the personnel of the new Hague International Arbitration Tribunal, and mention of this leads the editors to remark with uncon-

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cealed irony that they derived their information (fairly full but all "paper") on the South African Republic and the Orange Free State from the Transvaal's Legation at Brussels, and that (very meagre) concerning the Orange River Colony and Transvaal Colony from the Cape Minister. The Hague Tribunal is the "idealism" of the time which "cannot always be made to harmonize with the brutality of facts." Thus England's unpopularity invades even the almanacs.

Two new volumes (51, 52) have recently been added to the International Education Series (Appleton). Dr. Henry D. Sheldon, author of 'Student Life and Customs,' presents, in the form of an entertaining and stimulating essay, the outlines of a subject regarding which a considerable amount of material has already accumulated; his bibliography includes 318 titles of books and articles. Those working along similar lines may be trusted not to overlook such a useful guide, but the book may also be read with interest and profit by the more thoughtful of our university and college students, who may find, *e. g.*, in the chapter on debating societies (pp. 135-142, 201-215), thoughts that will be directly helpful to them in the management of their own affairs. Only 80 pages of the volume treat of student life in Europe. The remaining 226 pages are devoted to the United States.

Volume 52 of the same Series, 'An Ideal School, or, Looking Forward,' by Preston W. Search, is ushered in by a preface from Dr. W. T. Harris and an introduction from President G. Stanley Hall. The book is the result of much experience, study, and earnest thought, and Dr. Hall's estimation of its value is hardly an exaggerated one when he states it as his belief that there is no other single volume in this branch of literature "so well calculated to do so much good at the present time."

There is always a place for a good one-volume history of the United States, but we cannot think Mr. Francis Newton Thorpe's 'History of the American People' (McClurg) quite all that was desired. Neither as a textbook nor as a compendious narrative for the general reader is it likely to supersede works already familiar. A volume of 600 pages which gives but three pages to the Missouri Compromise and the Monroe Doctrine, six pages to the tariff of 1828, the Webster-Hayne debate, nullification, and Jackson's controversy with the Bank, half a page to the Dred Scott decision, and only twenty-five pages to the civil war, is certainly quite lacking in balance; while the account of strictly political events during the last fifty years is little more than a dreary enumeration of Presidential candidates and electoral votes, and a summary statement of the demands of party platforms. The chapters treating of State Constitutions and the regulation of suffrage and elections are evidently based on the elaborate discussions of those topics which are contained in Mr. Thorpe's larger works, and recall in general the handling there given them. We have not searched the book for errors, but the "twelve thousand pounds" which Massachusetts is said (p. 77) to have paid for Maine should, of course, be £1,250.

'American Political History' (Holt), by Viola A. Conklin, is the fruit of a course of parlor lectures to women, and professes no larger purpose than that of usefulness to study-clubs. Like most books of its class, it does not go beyond the commonplaces of the subject, and does not always avoid the conventional views of things which more recent scholarship has often changed; but the style is entertaining, and the volume should prove serviceable. If, as we suppose, the work is intended to be used as a sort of textbook where lectures cannot be had, its usefulness would be increased by the addition of a few maps and some references to collateral reading.

Miss Isabel Gordon Curtis's 'Leftovers Made Palatable' (Orange Judd Co.) is a manual which tells how to utilize foods which in an American household usually go to waste. Use is found for the alimentary remnants of every meal whether in hot or cold weather, and the treatment described. This is done so thoroughly that even persons to whom the preparation of food appears a hopeless enigma will find in the little volume inspiration and encouragement. The book stands alone in its class. This gives it unusual importance and makes it highly worthy of commendation.

Mr. Allen C. Clark, a Washington attorney, has republished his biography of Thomas Law, with some changes and considerable additions, in an attractive and even imposing volume, entitled 'Greenleaf and Law in the Federal City' (Washington: Roberts). In this work the author tries to show that the removal of the capital to Washington was in the main due to James Greenleaf; the retention of the capital at Washington, after 1814, to Thomas Law. He also speaks of the part which Robert Morris, John Nicholson, William Cranch, and W. M. Duncanson had in the building of the city. Mr. Clark is unfortunate in ignoring many of the rules of historical investigation and most of the rules of literary art. His narrative, therefore, lacks clearness, and his arguments, conclusiveness. The future historian of the capital, however, will value the material which he has gathered together, and all will applaud his suggestion that something ought to be done in Washington, either by antiquary, by architect, or by photographer, for the preservation of historic places in that historic city.

Minerva, an excellent and broad-minded "review of reviews" published weekly in Rome on the Corso (No. 219), concluded its eleventh volume with its issue of December 8, 1901. This periodical may be recommended to any one wishing to practise himself in the Italian tongue while at the same time improving his mind.

Much the same may be said on behalf of a humane little book compiled by Nigro Licò and published by Hoepli in Milan, entitled 'La Protezione degli Animali.' As might have been expected, there is a chapter directed against vivisection, and the claims of vegetarianism are set forth, without explicit endorsement of it or of Viaud's dictum, "Virtue and beefsteak can never agree." But, in general, the aim is to suppress cruelty in all our dealings with the brute creation.

Bulletin No. 50 of the United States National Museum is filled by Part I. of the "Birds of North and Middle America," a descriptive catalogue of the higher groups, genera, species, and sub-species of birds known to occur in North America, from the Arctic lands to the Isthmus of Panama, the West Indies, and other islands of the Caribbean Sea, and the Galapagos Archipelago, by Robert Ridgeway, curator, Division of Birds. This part, an octavo of 746 pages and 20 plates, contains only the Fringillidæ, the Finches, and about twenty-three pages of preliminary matter, relating to the class, order, and sub-order. Descriptions, synonymy, and keys are given for 389 species and sub-species, belonging to 69 genera. The work is well done, and will be a necessity to any one engaged in the study of birds inhabiting the region included.

Nature, long the leading scientific weekly of the world, offers, in the number for December 12, one of the best periodical indexes ever prepared, embracing nearly fifty double-column pages, and embodying not only the multitude of separate entries, but a classification of them under their respective sciences, with elaborate cross-references. Such sciences as astronomy, chemistry, and electricity are especially full; would not a system of sub-alphabetizing have been preferable here to preserving the mere numerical sequence of pagination? The same would apply to the very lengthy list of book-reviews and to the papers indexed under the sections of the British Association for the Advancement of Science. Authors' names, topics, and the subjects of papers are all included in the single index.

Mr. Edward Wilson James continues his even way in editing the *Lower Norfolk County* (Va.) *Antiquary* (Richmond: Bell), and in the fourth part of his third volume, pp. 135, 136, gives some interesting notes to Norfolk Marriage Bonds of 1802, showing tender consciences on the part of decedent slaveholders. Elizabeth Hawley, making her will in 1804, provides for the freedom of sundry slaves; in case the law forbade, "they were to be kept till emancipation was allowed." James Dawley, in 1814, also emancipates by will even the negroes left his wife by her late husband—"at her death, or before if she chooses." None of them may make up any legacy in his will or descend to any of his children, "for I abhor the idea of slavery."

The forty-second volume of the *Zeitschrift für Biologie* is a "Jubelband" in honor of the seventieth birthday of its editor, Carl Voit, professor of physiology in the Royal Bavarian University. It is made up of twenty-three papers by his pupils, past and present. Among these contributions is one on a certain form of diabetes, by Dr. Graham Lusk, professor of physiology in the University and Bellevue Medical College at New York.

The sixth volume of the current series of the *Archives Néerlandaises des Sciences Exactes et Naturelles* is also a "jubilee" volume, offered by the Dutch Society of Sciences at Harlem to its Secretary, Dr. J. Bosscha, on the seventieth anniversary of his birth. Besides the papers by the resident members of the Society are articles by such eminent foreign associates as Lords Kelvin and Rayleigh of England, Professors Berthelot, Cornu, and Mascart of France, Van't Hoff and Vogel of Germany. The only contribution from America is by Prof. Edward C. Pickering, director of the Harvard College Observatory, on "Variable Stars of Long Period."

The Germans find themselves able to make haste only very slowly in the introduction of a uniform system of revised

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orthography. Neither the Prussian nor the Saxon, nor any of the other proposed revisions, had been able to compel general acceptance, and, accordingly, the leading states, including Austria, arranged for a general Conference, which met in Berlin, last June, and completed a scheme of revision, with the understanding that this was to be generally introduced by Easter, 1902. Recently the Prussian Cultus Ministry, in response to inquiries from the officials of the German book-dealers, declared that the change would not be made by the time set, and that the confused condition of affairs now prevailing in German school- and other books must continue indefinitely, so far as Prussia is concerned. No special reason for this delay has been assigned.

An interesting feature of the forthcoming meeting of the Mississippi Historical Society, January 9 and 10, is a session devoted to the history of the Constitutional Convention of 1890. Apparently, a representative of each of the committees of the Convention is to present a history of the measures submitted to it. State historical societies so rarely discuss contemporary happenings that the outcome of the Mississippi experiment will be awaited with interest.

We have received from the Scovill & Adams Company their *American Annual of Photography* for 1902, with its usual diversity of papers on the art, lists of societies, etc., and great range of illustrations. The only three-color print is among the advertisements, and comes from Vienna.

—The occupant of the Easy Chair, in the January *Harper's*, unbosoms his hopes and fears for the Roosevelt Administration. His fears are grounded in the belief that the assassin's bullet has brought to an end an era of Presidents drawn from the common people, putting in their place one whom he classifies unhesitatingly with the aristocratic type of the early Presidency. For the type in general he has but caustic comment. Its conception of duty is not that men are best left to work out their own destinies, but that some one else can best do it for them—a conception akin to the notion of sovereignty "as something that could do no wrong, though it was apparently never able to do right." But he regards "the order of the gentleman" as more promising in this land than in others. "Elsewhere in history it has misgoverned the world worse than the order of the common man; with us alone has it shown the instinct of fellow-citizenship." In the President personally, Mr. Howells recognizes a high sense of honor and the very best intentions. He may do the rash thing, he will not consciously do the wrong. The best hope for him lies in the literary phase of his character. If his class limitations have denied him any actual experience of the needs, the perplexities, and the aspirations of the common man, he may still have enough of the poet in him sufficiently to imagine them. "He is capable, unless his actions and utterances belie him, of imagining the single ambition of being the best servant this people has ever had; and it is for this people to remember that the endeavor to such an end does [not?] rest wholly with him." Mark Twain begins in the same issue "A Double-Barrelled Detective Story," and leaves his reader *in mediis rebus* with the impression that the term "double-barrelled" unduly limits the dangerous possibilities of the situation. Sidney Brooks contributes a paper on London and New York at once instructive, suggestive, and amusing. He concludes his comparison with the opinion that the two cities are intended to be complementary to each other, and that the ideal city must have the good points of both. "Whether this would not involve the preliminary banishment of most London women and most New York men, is a point one might debate for ever."

—Senator Lodge contributes to the January *Scribner's* a paper on "The Treaty-making Powers of the Senate," assuming in his title the point to be proved, viz., that the function of the Senate in the making of treaties is at all stages on an equality with that of the President. Of course, the right either to ratify or reject a treaty places it in the power of the Senate to formulate changes, but it has no power to get such changes before the party of the second part to the treaty unless the President shall choose to accept and communicate them. The real difficulty with the Senate in the matter of treaties, however, lies not so much in the *transcendence* as in the *abuse* of its Constitutional rights. What the people are tired of is not Senate amendments *per se*, but Senate amendments which are inherently vicious, tending to hamper the President in his efforts to maintain right relations with foreign powers, and in some cases tending seriously to retard the progress of civilization. The article of greatest public interest in this number is that of the former Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, Frank A. Vanderlip, on "The American 'Commercial Invasion' of Europe." It is the first of a series, in preparation for which Mr. Vanderlip has had the advantage of extensive interviews with the leading statesmen and financiers of Europe. Our commercial advantages and disadvantages, in comparison with European countries, are clearly set forth; and, among the disadvantages, one finds occasionally an item which the thoughtless are accustomed to reckon on the other side of the account. A man unnamed, but certified to by the writer as one of the most eminent financiers of Europe, is quoted as saying, after speaking of other countries: "But what of your future? We are glad to see you going into the Philippines. We will welcome the time, if you are going to measure strength with us as a military power. Commercially, you are supreme, but if it comes to a test of military strength, if you are going to weight yourselves with the militarism which is the burden of Europe, then we can see some light." Similarly, M. de Witte is quoted as to the enormous harm done to the power of England by those who drew her into the South African war: "Should she have too many Chamberlains and too many Transvaal campaigns, she might be ruined."

—In the *Century's* table of contents we find several items to be credited on its promise of "A Year of American Humor." Readers will not be far from unanimous, we imagine, in assigning the place of honor among these to "The Gentleman of the Plush Rocker," by Ruth McEnery Stuart. Rose Ann, the jolly washerwoman, and her husband, Napoleon Jackson, Esq., who couldn't work "'ca'se his mammy she marked him so," are a pair which one would willingly go through a dozen negro dialect stories to discover. The prize poem, story, and essay of the *Century's* competition for college graduates of 1900 appear in this issue. The poem, by John Erskine of Columbia University, is a smooth and effective treatment of a classic legend, Actæon, with perhaps no more traces of former gleaners in the classic field than are inevitable to a beginner. So far as externals are concerned, the writer is certainly capable of good work; the limits of the present poem are too narrow to warrant an opinion as to his possession of real poetic genius. The story, by Katharine Fullerton, of Radcliffe College, is a story of a story—a type, perhaps, more natural to the young college graduate than to others, but perfectly legitimate if well wrought out. In the present case, a little more simplicity in the telling would be an improvement. The essay, by James E. Routh, jr., of Johns Hopkins University, leaves the suggestion of the college student farther in the distance than either of the other productions. Many a critic with years of experience behind him has been content to publish work far less thorough and convincing than Mr. Routh's study of "Huxley as a Literary Man." Charles Henry Hart closes in this number the series of Gilbert Stuart's "Portraits of Women" with the portraits of Mrs. Robert Morris, wife of the financier of the Revolution, and Mrs. Peter Meircken, wife of a prominent shipping merchant of Philadelphia.

—The first number of the first volume of *Biometrika*, "A Journal for the Statistical Study of Biological Problems," edited in consultation with Francis Galton by W. F. R. Weldon, Karl Pearson, and C. B. Davenport (Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan), is a neat-looking quarto of 128 pages. The journal is a quarterly, especially devoted to the publication of statistical data and of papers dealing with statistical theory. Its reasons for existence are the collection of biological data of a kind not systematically collected and published elsewhere, and diffusion of the statistical theories requisite for scientific treatment. It is to include statistical memoirs, in English, French, German, and Italian, on variation, inheritance, and selection in animals and plants; statistical theories applicable to biological problems; tables and solutions to lessen the labor of statistical arithmetic; abstracts of memoirs dealing with these subjects published in other journals, and notes on biometric work and unsolved problems. It will aim to establish such uniformity of treatment, terminology, and notation as will facilitate comparisons. The pages of this number are illustrated by numerous tables of numbers and of curves of interest to specialists. The articles are: "Biometry," "Variationsstatistische Probleme und Materialien," "Data for the Problem of Evolution in Man," "Inheritance of the Duration of Life and the Intensity of Natural Selection in Man," "Variation in Aurelia Aurita," "A First Study of Natural Selection in Clausilia Laminata," etc. The frontispiece is from a photograph of a statue of Darwin. The publication is characterized through and through by what is known as Darwin Evolution, that is, by Natural Selection. Biometry is brought forward as a new branch of science with the primary object of affording material that shall be exact enough for the discovery of incipient

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changes in evolution too small to be otherwise apparent. It deals with mass-phenomena, for, as the editor would put it, though a single individual may have a variation making it a fit type for survival, it cannot be an effective factor in evolution until the fit type has increased and multiplied up to comparatively great numbers. And thus it is, through results and effects, not through their causes, that the problem of evolution becomes a problem in the vital statistics of population. There is an abundance of room for the magazine. May it live long and prosper.

—'In the Ice World of Himálaya,' by Dr. W. H. Workman and Mrs. Workman (Cassell), is a record of climbing among the peaks and passes of Ladakh, Nubra, Suru, and Baltistan. The book is altogether destitute of a scientific element and adds little to geographical information. The journeys in question, which occupied the seasons of 1898-99, were undertaken solely for the amusement of the authors and with a view to escaping from the heat of the Indian plains. The most striking feature of the narrative is the description of three mountain ascents in Baltistan, which were effected with the aid of Zurbriggen in 1899. Two of the said peaks rise above the Skoro La glacier near Askole, and the third, Koser Gunge, is not far from Yuno, in the Shigar valley. The summit last named is 21,000 feet, and its conquest by Mrs. Workman is a feat of some importance in the history of mountaineering. No such altitude has ever before been reached by a lady. Apart from the description of routes, there is nothing very distinctive or interesting about the volume. Mr. and Mrs. Workman had a good deal of trouble with native servants, and seem to have been annoyed when they were charged exorbitant prices. But such are the incidents of mountaineering in India, and the traveller who goes to Kashmir and beyond must make up his mind to take things as he finds them. Mrs. Workman has a short chapter about the effect upon her of rarefied air, which may be of some importance to lady climbers in the Alps, the Rockies, and elsewhere. For the rest, the book is sometimes amusing when it hardly means to be, and is not a very valuable addition to mountaineering literature. At the end is placed a singular glossary, wherein may be found, scattered about among Hindustani terms, such interpretations as "*Dir*, to you; *Euch*, to you; *Entourage*, setting; *Ewigen*, eternal; *Friede*, peace; *Heilige*, holy, revered; *Höhen*, heights," etc. The half-tone illustrations are fairly good, and seem in many cases to be taken from excellent photographs.

—The very remarkable changes which the nebulous region round the new star in Perseus has recently been found to undergo, were first discovered on photographic plates taken by Mr. Perrine at the Lick Observatory, and subsequently confirmed by Mr. Ritchey at Williams Bay, Wisconsin. The amount of apparent motion in certain regions of the nebula is quite incredible, and should lead astronomers to suspend judgment as to what has actually taken place in this part of the heavens until there are at least further observational developments. Sir Norman Lockyer, perhaps the most eminent living authority, thinks that the full significance of the recent observations has not been grasped by those who have commented upon them. On a reasonable hypothesis of distance, these observed motions, if such they really are, mean a translation through space equal to 400,000,000 miles daily. Excessively swift movements like these are perhaps not impossible, but there certainly is no precedent for them. Furthermore, Sir Norman shows, there is no necessity for the assumption of such movement; for the apparent change in position of these nebular condensations is easy to explain otherwise than by movement. Applying his well-known meteoritic theory, let us suppose a nebula to be invaded, not by one but by many meteorite swarms, under conditions such that the effects of collision vary greatly in intensity. Nova Persei itself was the most violent of all, and we began to know about it some months ago. Less violent ones, occurring in other parts of the nebula, at least 70,000,000,000 miles removed from the star itself, were learned of only from the recently taken photographs. So feeble are these disturbances that they soon die out, and, while dying, other disturbances in other parts of the nebula arise. As Sir Norman significantly remarks, "It is impossible to think that the great nebula which has now been photographed while the new star is still in being did not exist there a few months ago; and it is important, further, to remark that the nebulous matter already photographed in the region round the Nova is very probably only a portion of the actual amount of matter existing there, and that, if the disturbances continue, more of the remaining portion may become visible." Indeed, the latest photographs show an apparent expansion in all directions.

SEGANTINI.

Giovanni Segantini: The Story of his Life, together with seventy-five reproductions of his pictures in half-tone and photogravure. By Luigi Villari. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

The remarkable qualities in Segantini's work never fail to attract observation in exhibitions of Italian art in which he is represented. They consist in a convincing sincerity of impression, whatever may be his subject; they have a poetry of their own derived from seeking after truth, whether in landscapes of the high Alps or in scenes of peasant life reminding us of Jean François Millet. Segantini is a painter who owes his development to his intense love of nature. This is all the more remarkable in an Italian who, surrounded by the best traditions of art, would, in the practice of the old masters, naturally find influences to inspire and instruct. The old masters never affected Segantini's work in the very least.

Luigi Villari's story of Segantini's life is full of interest, often telling in the artist's own words of the extraordinary difficulties he overcame to become an artist. Everything we can know of the man is here, together with ample illustrations of the pictures mentioned. Giovanni Segantini was born in 1858 at Arco, near the Lake of Garda. His father was a carpenter, his mother sold fruit and vegetables, his home was a dilapidated house on the bridge over the Sarca. High dolomite peaks stand like needles above the village, changing in color with the course of the sun; the valley opens towards the blue waters of the Lake of Garda. The child was weakly from his birth, and at four his earliest recollection is of having been pushed by accident into the river, whose rushing waters carried him towards the great wheel of his godfather's mill. At this early age and during this moment of terror, the effect of light and the color of things around him seem to have impressed themselves on his mind, showing that even from the first he was endowed with remarkable powers of observation. His mother died the year following, at the age of twenty-nine, leaving the child the remembrance, always cherished, of her beauty and suffering, which inspired him later to seek in incidents of maternal love the subject of many pictures.

Segantini's father left Arco after his wife's death and took the boy to Milan, where his eldest son and daughter by a former marriage kept a small perfumer's shop. The business was at a low ebb and soon had to be given up, the father and eldest son emigrating to America to seek a livelihood, while Giovanni remained under the care of his step-sister, who had to leave him all day to his own devices while she worked for the necessary means of subsistence. The tiny rooms in a tenement-house of Via San Simone were a dreary prison for the imaginative child; the windows were so high up that only by standing on the table could he see the sky, which in Milan during winter is often gray and colorless. The boy was oppressed by fear, and sought refuge at the landing window, where he could see the roofs of houses and a little courtyard. He spent his days in gazing out into the distance. One day he allowed himself the relaxation of throwing out tiny pieces of paper and watching their downward course; he thought they looked like snowflakes. He was admonished from below to cease this pastime; but later, when he thought the person had gone, he threw out a whole snow-storm of torn-up paper, and leaned out to watch it settling on the ground. For this he received a thrashing from the house porter on the spot, followed by a second from his sister on her return.

After this incident he was for a long time locked up in his sister's rooms, the prey of terror. He tells of another incident which made a landmark in his boyhood, the sight of pails of paint and brushes on the staircase. His expectation was so excited that he lost all appetite, and watched to see what would happen. The process of house-painting proved disappointing, but in the unequal dabs of red color left on the walls the child managed to see all manner of things—even the green fields and clear brooks of his old home at Arco, for which he was ever longing. Then came the cold winter passed in the lonely rooms with only a charcoal brazier for all heat; but, when spring returned, and he could again look out of the window on the landing, he heard the neighbors talking of some hero of romance who, when quite young, had left Milan and walked to France, where he had become famous, having achieved great deeds. These chance words suggested the possibility of change; he thought he would leave the dull passage where he had spent so many weary hours to go away. His father had once pointed out to him the arch and road built by Napoleon

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I. through which the French and Piedmontese troops had entered Milan in triumph; he inferred that that road must lead over the mountains to France, and, with only a piece of bread in his pocket, he set out one day, and, in the heat of spring sunshine, trudged across the Lombard plain onward past the little village he came to. The feeling of being among trees and in the sunshine intoxicated him; it was only when the shades of evening drew on and a thunder-storm seemed approaching that he lay down by the roadside beside the trunk of a tree. Overcome by fatigue, he fell asleep, heedless of rain and thunder. Some country people going by in a cart saw the drenched child, and roused him. On hearing that he was on his way to France, they assured him he had mistaken the road, and offered to take him home with them, where he was well cared for that night. In the morning they proposed sending him back to his sister, but he declared that he would run away again, so they agreed to keep him if he would make himself useful. He remained two or three years with these good people, leading a peasant's life.

While with them it was that Segantini's great inclination towards art manifested itself. "The first time I took up a pencil to draw was when I heard a mother sobbing over her dead child, saying: 'Oh that I had but her portrait, she was so beautiful.'" What this first attempt was like remains unrecorded, but the desire to study art and to see his sister again brought him back to Milan. He worked for his living by day, and studied at the evening class for ornamental drawing at the Brera. He was so poor that he got shut up by the police for a time in the Patronato for abandoned children. He escaped once, was recaptured, and taught the trade of cobbler, but he was allowed to draw, and at this moment several of his early drawings, including a portrait of King Humbert, then Prince, remain in this institution. Soon after this he entered the elementary figure class at the Academy. Here he remained only a few months, leaving it convinced that the instruction offered there was useless to those who were born artists. His antagonism to academic instruction lasted to the end, and prompted him to refuse the diploma of honorary associate which was offered to him later. He worked for money with a painter of banners while studying at the Brera, but utterly despised the work of his employer.

His first oil colors were given him by a friend, a grocer, who required him to paint a signboard. This accomplished, the remains of the color in the tubes served him to paint his first picture, the "Choir of the Church of Sant' Antonio." He could not afford a canvas, but stretched instead a sugar bag dipped in oil. This work represents the interior of a choir with carved stalls and high wainscoting, upon which the sun pours from a high window on the left. Without knowing anything of the science of divisionism, he found out that, by placing pure touches of color side by side, leaving them to fuse to the sight instead of mixing them on the palette, the effect of "more air, more light, consequently more reality," is obtainable. He says, referring to this experiment: "This secret, now a proved fact, had been perceived by painters of all times and all countries, the first of whom was Fra Angelico. It came to me through my loving and earnest study of nature, and as something personal and individual." This is the only reference we find throughout the book in Segantini's writings (which are continually quoted) to the work of the old masters. In common with all great artists, Segantini objected to scientific systems applied to art. He did not adopt divisionism as a manner until much later, and then not to the advantage of his work. The picture on the sugar-bag foundation proved a success, and obtained him the Brera silver medal, and, better still, the friendship of Vittore Grubicy, art critic and artist, whose advice and affection were of the greatest use to the young man. One of the professors at the Brera school gave Segantini a paint-box so that he could practise his loved art, and during the following years at Milan he attempted different methods and produced much work—still-life and genre pictures for the most part. The longing for the life he loved in the country again took possession of him. He had by this time married the sister of his brother artist, Carlo Bugatti, and was able to live by art, so in 1882 he took a villa at Pusiano in the Brianza, on Lake Como, and remained there for four years, finding his subjects among the peasants for whose life and toil he had the greatest sympathy.

It is impossible not to feel in the work of this period that Segantini must have been in some measure influenced by the work of Millet; his range of subjects and their treatment have such strong affinity to the work of the great French artist. Segantini, however, never saw a painting by Millet, but knew his work through a set of engravings after him given him by Signor Grubicy. These must have decided him to turn his hand to painting scenes from the life of the people around him. Notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, the life of the peasant in North Italy is most arduous, and Segantini has expressed every phase of pious resignation to a hard lot. The tie between man and beast, the common feeling of maternity in both, the fatigue of the laborer, his anxieties and cares, the very bareness of the life—all this is told in his work of this period—"Two Mothers," "In the Sheepfold," "A Prayer to the Cross," "The Blessing of the Sheep," "Sheep-Shearing," "The Potato Harvest," etc., etc. Of these works the "Ave Maria *a trasbordo*" became very popular, and has been much noticed out of Italy. It represents a flat-bottomed boat, full of sheep, with hoops for an awning, crossing a lake at evensong. The steeple from the little village on the low-lying shore across the water rings the Ave Maria; the woman holding her child in the prow bends over him in prayer, the shepherd rowing reverently bows his head. The great simplicity of the composition and the luminous effect of the sky and water are very telling. An exhibition at Milan refused to exhibit this picture in 1882, but the following year, at the Amsterdam exhibition, it received the gold medal, and has since become widely familiar. From this moment his work became known in Italy.

Segantini's method of work was very unusual. He did not make preliminary studies, but, after painting his picture, would make sketches and studies from which to correct its defects. "As you know," he wrote, "I never make sketches; because if I were to make the sketch, I should never paint the picture. Most of the artists who have painted a clever sketch have rarely painted a picture that was equal to it, or they have not painted the picture at all, because in the sketch they expressed the spiritual part of their work. I wish that the conception should be preserved in its virginity in the brain." Further on, "In a word, I desire that in the picture one should not see man's childish efforts; I want the picture to appear blended in color. Flowers are thus made, and this is the divine art." It was after the Brianza period of his work that Segantini, in his own opinion and in that of his biographer, achieved his greatest fame. After long wanderings in the Alps in search of a suitable spot from which he could come into contact with Nature in her grandest aspects, he settled at Savagnino, south of Tiefenkasten on the road to Coire. He realized that, in the rarefied air of the high Alps, where the light is so intense, it would be necessary to adopt a method of painting wholly different from that which he had used in his Brianza work; he recognized the research for light in color as the aim of modern art, and he sought to attain this by returning to divisionism and working out the theory as it seemed to suit his subjects. He painted without any adherence to systematic process, but used pointillisme as it served his purpose. It was no innovation, for the French impressionists were working for some time in this vein. He obtained by broken lines a porous texture which seemed to render the broken color and rugged Alpine surface. Another particularity of his pictures of the Alps is his point of view. He has chosen it from a high level, so that the distant peaks do not overpower the foreground or destroy the harmony of the composition. Even in the Alps, Segantini chose the milder aspects of the mountains, and made his pictures out of simple elements. He loved for his foregrounds the twisted trees which become contorted by the storms and cold, the little mountain tarns whose waters are so wonderfully blue, the grazing cattle, and a few human figures in attitudes which tell the tale, rather than any attempt at facial expression; and, far away in the distance, a line of distant peaks, which do not seem so very high, painted as they are from their own level. "Haymaking," "Alpine Pastures," "Spring Pastures," "Spring in the Alps" illustrate this period of the artist's career.

In Savagnino he made his home till about 1894, when he went up to the Maloja and settled on the highest point of the Engadine, 6,000 feet above the sea. Here he spent the last five years of his life, during which period he produced, under the influence of symbolism, fantastic pictures, the merits of which are very much open to discussion. Villari tells us how wanting in education Segantini remained, so that even to the end he never could spell, although, in Italian, spelling is far easier than with us. He wrote much to his friends, often expressing himself very well; he also wrote on art several very remarkable newspaper articles. He was fond of reading, and filled the long winter evenings with books which he did not always understand. He was ignorant of history and mythology, and never chose sub-

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jects for pictures from either; but flowers he loved as well as the animals. He writes thus of animal painting:

"I wish that men should love the kindly animals, those that provide them with bed, and meat, and skins; therefore I painted 'The Two Mothers,' 'The Mothers,' and the good horse under the plough, working with man and for man. I painted toil, and rest after toil, and everywhere I painted good animals, with eyes full of gentleness. They who give everything to man—their strength, their offspring, their flesh, and their skins—are beaten and ill-treated by him; but still think that man as a rule loves them—but, above all, loves the earth, for the earth is more generous than aught else; it gives to man and beast."

Symbolism, the result of the painter's literary studies, now took possession of his mind. The works he produced under this inspiration do not seem to us to be good as art, nor do we believe that pictures should be used to preach sermons. "The Source of Evil," a nude woman looking into a mountain pool, where, instead of her reflection, she will see a serpent; "Love at the Fountain of Life," "The Angel of Life," "The Unnatural Mothers," "The Punishment of Luxury," are all of this type. During this time he also continued his landscapes, and painted the triptych, a large composition consisting of three panels, Life, Nature, and Death, with three lunettes above them, and six medallions in the angles. These Alpine landscapes, full of symbolic intention, are very realistically treated, and contain some of his best work, but even our author, who has a profound appreciation of Segantini's work, confesses that the triptych has no decorative effect, and is connected together only by a literary idea. It was for the exhibition of 1900 in Paris that Segantini was painting this last work. He hoped to take it himself, for his desire to go to France had never been realized. In order to study an effect of light, he had his picture carried to the summit of the Schafberg in the middle of September after a snow-storm had come on. There he camped in a shepherd's hut, where he was suddenly taken ill of fever. He sent a shepherd for his doctor, who came to him, as also his wife and children, but he died of peritonitis on September 28, 1899.

Segantini left but few followers. He had all his life felt isolated from his fellow-artists in Italy. He had worked alone, following assiduously the one aim of his life with great nobility of purpose.

Victorian Prose Masters. By W. C. Brownell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

We have here a collection of serious and well-considered critical essays upon Thackeray, Carlyle, George Eliot, Matthew Arnold, Ruskin, and George Meredith. The work is of a grade which invites comparison with the best critical writing. Mr. Brownell's affiliations are, in a general way, with the tradition of Sainte-Beuve and Matthew Arnold. He does not adopt Sainte-Beuve's intensive method of approach, and he does not exhibit Arnold's peculiarities of tone and manner, but his criticism is like the criticism of these masters in that it is neither impressionist nor academic. It evinces, indeed, both information and taste; it is guided by a purpose, and tempered with geniality.

The schematization is pretty much the same in all the six papers. Each begins with a section upon the vogue of the author under consideration, and then, by study of his personality, style, and ideas, attempts to reconsider earlier judgments in order to assist the orientation of twentieth-century criticism by a summary characterization and definition of the most typical prose writers of the Victorian age. There are few contemporary critics who would have adventured this difficult and delicate task so boldly, or who could have brought it to a completion so prosperous.

Considering Mr. Brownell's work as a whole, we believe that most competent readers will find in the essays upon the three novelists, Thackeray, George Eliot, and Meredith, the greatest edification and the fullest satisfaction. All Mr. Brownell's criticism is manifestly composed with an eye on the book, but this is nowhere more evident than in the essay on Thackeray. He is a thoroughgoing Thackerayan, and the wealth of allusion interspersed in his pages will render them peculiarly pleasing to his fellows in the cult. The most important contribution of his paper to the criticism of Thackeray's writings is its defence of his "reticulation of personal comment." Mr. Brownell says very happily: "It is absolutely true that Thackeray's 'subjectivity' in this way subtly increases the objectivity of his creations. They are in this way definitely 'exteriorized.' In this way we get the most vivid, the most realizing sense of them as independent existences; and in this way we get Thackeray too." To show how keen is Mr. Brownell's interest in character in fiction, and how discerning his judgment, it may be well to set over against this passage his discrimination of the peculiar quality of George Eliot's people:

"They occupy a middle ground, . . . one may say, between the personages of Thackeray, who is accused latterly of having no psychology, and those of Hawthorne, which, as Mr. James points out, are never types. This is, perhaps, why they are so rarely our companions, our intimates, as the characters of even inferior novelists are, though I imagine the reason is mainly that they are mentally rather than temperamentally individualized, and that it is the sense, the volitions, the emotions rather than the intellect of people which, in fiction as in life, attach them to us, and give them other than a quasi-scientific interest for us."

The study of Meredith will not wholly please the more ardent Meredithians, but it is surely one of the best, as it is the longest, in the book. The fundamental assumption, the cardinal heresy from the Meredithian point of view, is contained in the following sentences: "Mr. Meredith's world, however, is not the real world. It is a fantastic one, treated realistically. It is not simple enough to be real; he is not simple enough." This thesis is defended with much minuteness of citation and cogency of argument. Ample justice is done to Meredith's very great intellectual force, his subtlety of understanding, the fertility of his invention, and his occasional exhibitions of poetic insight of a very high order. But we fancy few catholic and unprejudiced readers will be found to dissent from Mr. Brownell's final opinion:

"What one misses most in his work is the large rhythm which undulates through that of the great writers, the sustained note of informing purpose, the deep vibrations of some unifying undertone, now rising to accent and emphasis, now sounding faintly beneath the multifariousness of accompanying motives, but always audible to an attentive sense as the basis, if not the burden, of the 'theme with variations' that the ensemble of every great writer's compositions constitutes. Mr. Meredith has no theme; he has a dozen, a score—as many as he has books. And this, I imagine, is the standing menace to the increase of his popularity and the permanence of his fame."

We have been lured into such copious quotations from Mr. Brownell's discussion of the novelists that small space is left for animadversions upon his treatment of Carlyle, Ruskin, and Arnold. The latter group, as compared with the former, is appreciably less conspicuous for *intimité*. The strictures upon Carlyle's "agitated thinking" and Ruskin's emotional fallacies are just, but less original and informing than the writing upon Thackeray and George Eliot. The essay upon Matthew Arnold will be to the majority of readers the most and to many the least satisfactory. A man's predilections as a critic, but in no sense his rank, may be pretty accurately determined as he prefers Arnold's verse or his prose. Mr. Brownell esteems the latter the better and higher work. His eulogy of criticism as an honorable branch of literature contains much wisdom, and will be welcome to all critics, professional or amateur. But while it is perfectly true that criticism is "a characterization of art, as art is a characterization of nature; and in characterizing, it translates as art itself translates," there is still a fundamental difference between the imaginative work of the critic and that of the "maker." This is a distinction which Arnold himself would have been the last to waive. The essay on Arnold is a curious instance of the fluidity of critical appreciations. As Mr. Brownell warms to his theme, the treatment grows increasingly sympathetic even to the point of becoming slightly inconsistent with what has gone before. Indeed, Mr. Brownell's excellent statement of the nature of Arnold's critical principles is fairly applicable to his own work: "Certain definite *ideas*, held with elastic firmness, but not developed into any set of procrustean principles, formed his *credo*, and his criticism consisted in the application of these as a test and measure of quality and worth."

Enough of Mr. Brownell's work has been quoted to convey some notion not only of his quality as a critic, but also of his skill in the composition of English prose. Of the rhythmical graces of prose he is not very careful, and his style is marred by the excessive and somewhat vague use of current words like "notable"; but in general his writing is exceptional in its precise propriety of diction, the fit expression of the vigor and lucidity of his thought.

George Whitefield, M.A., Field Preacher. By James Paterson Gledstone. Second Edition. New York: American Tract Society. 1901.

Mr. Gledstone's book is at the same time interesting and unsatisfactory. It is a good story of Whitefield's life, told in an easy and attractive style. But the treatment is extremely superficial. We get little account of the conditions under which Whitefield did his work, less of the substance of his message or of its practical effects,

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and much less than we desire or need of Wesley's contemporary work. It may be said that we should be satisfied with one of these persons at a time, but it is impossible to understand either without much reference to the other. There is little explication of the terrible quarrel between Wesley and Whitefield as to the relative merits of Arminianism and Calvinism. We are made witnesses to a great battle, but the field is rolled in smoke, and we would gladly have Mr. Gledstone

> "tell us all about the war,
> And what they killed each other for."

We know that election was set off against free grace, but we would fain be made wiser as to the bearing of the opposing views on the moral influence of the one evangelist and the other. Wesley had a more irritating manner than Whitefield, but nothing could be more unlovely than the way in which Whitefield dips his personal rebuke in pious phrases when he would drive it home. We are hardly justified in blaming the writer of one book for not writing another, but those who have read Miss Julia Wedgwood's 'John Wesley' will certainly wish that Mr. Gledstone had brought to his subject something of Miss Wedgwood's searching psychological analysis.

As touching Wesley, Mr. Gledstone's manner is that of mild depreciation. Yet he nowhere tells us, what was certainly the fact, that Wesley's preaching, far more intellectual and less emotional than Whitefield's, was responsible for much more terrible exhibitions of hysteria and that sort of thing—faintings, shriekings, convulsions, and the like. Wesley would seem to have been more superstitious than Whitefield in his resort to sortilege and in other particulars. In fact, when Wesley opened the Bible at a text which he interpreted as a command for Whitefield to stay in England, Whitefield sailed away as if there had been no heavenly interdict. Wesley's experience in Georgia, had Whitefield been aware of it, might have deterred him from going there as could not any chance-drawn Bible text. It is with evident satisfaction that Mr. Gledstone writes that Charles Wesley was so much a High Churchman that he made careful arrangements to be buried in consecrated ground, and was actually buried in the only corner of St. Marylebone churchyard that had not been consecrated.

The greatest injustice to John Wesley is that of withholding his opinion of slavery—"the sum of all villainies"—when Mr. Gladstone is frankly setting forth the relations of Whitefield to the peculiar institution. These, however, he does not obscure, but exhibits them in their unqualified ugliness; nor does he make any apology for them whatsoever. It must certainly suggest a doubt as to the reality of Whitefield's religiousness to find him using all his influence to break down the provisions hostile to the importation of rum and slaves into Georgia, and rejoicing in his success, himself purchasing slaves as a source of profit to his darling orphan asylum. The curiosities of piety have few more questionable examples than Whitefield's letters on this head. "But Providence," says Mr. Gledstone, "had a strange revenge for Whitefield's fault, for in the house next to that in which he died at Newbury Port [*sic*] Garrison was born, and over the ramparts of Fort Sumter, Charleston, S. C., from which the first shot was fired by the South on the Federal flag, Garrison . . . had the joy of seeing that flag raised again as the symbol of liberty for all, black and white alike." On the other side of the Garrison birthplace is the church in which Whitefield was buried. It is a stranger thing than the birth of Garrison in the shadow of Whitefield's tomb that from the English Evangelicals who were the sons of Whitefield's thunder, should have come Wilberforce, Venn, Macaulay, and their coadjutors in the destruction of West Indian slavery, and a sympathy which did much to encourage the American abolitionists in times of fiery trial. The absorption of Whitefield's influence into the Episcopal and other churches of England and America, in contrast with Wesley's creation of a new organization, is the more remarkable when we consider that, in the case of the Episcopal Church, Wesley's views were much more congenial to it than Whitefield's.

Whitefield's silly side towards women folk was not so abnormally developed as Wesley's, but his relations with them were sufficiently absurd. In his first wooing he "made no great profession," and assured the lady's parents that "his heart was free from that foolish passion which the world calls love." What he wanted was a good housekeeper; but the lady did not care to marry on such terms. Finally, he married a widow, ten years his senior, "once gay, but for three years last past a despised follower of the Lamb." Hers was at best only a semi-detached relation to the great itinerant. There was more humanity in his welcome to a little son, but not much when the child died only a week old: "I blessed the Father of Mercies for giving me a son, continuing it to me so long, and taking it from me so soon." And in many other places we seem to miss the accent of entire sincerity.

The Mental Functions of the Brain: An Investigation into their Localization and their Manifestation in Health and Disease. By Bernard Hollender, M.D., L.R.C.P., etc. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 507, plates xxiv.

Twenty years ago the possible determination of cerebral centres was still an issue. To-day motor areas are well mapped out, and surgery works backward from effects to causes when affording mechanical relief. Most psychologists draw a line between pure mental action and that which merely leads to muscular effort, because this may be induced by mechanical irritation in an unconscious subject. They would hold paralysis of the admitted speech-centre to bear upon the expression, not the function, of intellection, and are not willing to acknowledge thoughts and emotion-centres. Now the will may not lie in a motor centre, but it must be intimately connected with it, and, as Ferrier puts it, "the motor centres have a psychical significance, and form, as it were, the motor substrata of the mind." Perhaps the generally accepted doctrine may be expressed thus: A definite zone of the cerebral cortex is closely associated with motor functions, but this is also partly motor and partly sensory, and motion may not actually originate in it; and in effect the origin of motion lies in three positions, viz., (1) in the highest level of conscious thought, (2) in an area of the cortex technically known as the Rolandic, (3) in the gray matter of the spinal cord, so that automatic and memory motion may remain after the destruction of the area in which conscious thought arises. The literature of the subject thus recognizes general spheres of action, besides which well-defined local areas governing special outlying regions are acknowledged.

General medical opinion limits the functions of the cerebellum to those of coordination, and assigns the reasoning powers to the pre-frontal area, although some modern writers maintain that the intellectual centres lie in the posterior lobes. Indeed, the conception of the mind itself is not identical among all; some limit it to the understanding, while others, as we think with propriety, include the emotions or propensities which supply motives. Nearly all psychologists and alienists look upon the entire brain as the organ of the mind at large. They recognize that the judgment controls or is mastered by the emotions, as the case may be, and also that the intellect may be occupied with the highest problems of pure reason with which the emotions have no concern. But they do not teach that these various elements have specific habitats, and, notwithstanding that when the mind has been awry necropsies may disclose brain lesions, they do not yet assume to anticipate (except within very narrow limits) what mental consequences will follow local damage. Insanity presumes a diseased brain, but that such disease may be demonstrated in any particular lobe, or at all, is quite another matter. In fact, the latest American text-book teaches that: "As is true of mania, there is also no known pathological anatomy for melancholia. It is a functional disorder of the brain. . . ." That is, although the brain is the organ of the mind, such mental disorders pertain to the operation of the brain, not necessarily to its constitution. The mechanism needs regulating, not repairing; and this implies derangement of the entire machinery, showing itself sometimes in one and sometimes in another way. In other words, as applied to the mind at large, the character of a mental disorder cannot be deduced from any particular injury or local disease in advance of its manifestation. To this there are obvious exceptions, as when there is general softening or great destruction of brain tissue; but the foregoing may be accepted as the common doctrine of mental pathology.

Francis Joseph Gall (1758-1828), an enthusiastic and intelligent physician, was also an anatomist of painstaking and original observation. His great work on the nervous system, particularly of the head, is a treasure-house of important discoveries from which is drawn much of the medical science of to-day. It is hard to realize that when his investigations were begun, no connection between the brain and the mind was recognized, and even much later the Edinburgh *Review* said editorially: "There is not the smallest reason for supposing that the mind ever operates through the agency of any material organ." It must therefore be remembered that Gall was not only a scientific anatomist, but a discoverer in anatomy at the very head of the modern explorers of the nervous system, that he very

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widely extended the realms of exact knowledge therein, and that what were his original demonstrations are now the common property of medical science. His observations led him to believe that the gray matter of the brain is the seat of all mental and, indeed, moral activity, that it embraces separate but associated centres, each possessing special functions, and that the growing brain moulds the skull, its protecting shell. Further, he sought to define these centres and to determine their development and retrogression under physiological and pathological influences. He particularly sought to compare regional brain development, as shown by the size and shape of the cranium, with the apparent mental capacity of the same subject, and thus to lay the foundation of a physiology of the brain. He invariably designated his study that of the functions of the brain. The term phrenology, which is good enough for the purpose, was an invention of Spurzheim's, which Gall did not use, nor, as taught by the inventor, accept as a system.

With no previous topographical anatomy of the brain surface upon which to define their provinces, his localizations were sometimes vague, sometimes inadequate. He determined the shape of the head that seemed connected with certain exaggerated qualities, and, reasoning *a posteriori*, gradually constructed a brain-plan consonant therewith. He did not at first try to analyze the fundamental power of any individual faculty or group. That is, Gall did not found a psychology; he endeavored to show that certain general regions, and in a few instances certain special localities, were endowed with particular powers, meaning to leave the work of filling in details for those who should come after. In so far as Spurzheim, Combe, and others attempted to analyze the different faculties, they built upon Gall's foundation. Whether this was well or ill is of no consequence here, but it is quite certain that that work was begun prematurely, and was carried on unadvisedly, to the great anoyance of the philosopher.

The author of the present work, of which the sub-title is "The Revival of Phrenology," presents a clinical record and analysis of eight hundred collected cases of brain disease, which, whatever one may think of the abstract doctrine, merit close consideration by those to whom the mental health of the community is intrusted. We think they go far towards maintaining the soundness of the general proposition, and they give hints for treatment during life, and furnish material for reflection after the termination of the case. Particularly interesting is the association central area of the parietal lobe. But to discuss the professional bearing of these records would be out of place here. We cannot say as much for the style of the book as for its matter. The composition is often marred by violence of expression, and its appearance is disfigured by a multitude of italicised words and sentences. The quotations are numerous and nearly all apt, but many cannot be verified for want of exact reference. Some of the plates are beautiful reductions from the great atlas of Gall, but others are irrelevant portraits of distinguished men, like Boccaccio, Fox, Cardinal Manning. The index is copious, but neither well arranged nor complete.

Essays and Addresses. By Augustine Birrell. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

These papers would make the reputation of a new writer, but they will not add to that which Mr. Birrell has already acquired. The subjects are not generally such as to call for the exercise of that lightness of touch, that lambent play of humor, which captivated the readers of 'Obiter Dicta'; and when they are, as in the case of the House of Commons, we seem to detect a certain weariness, or at least a lack of the joyousness with which the author revelled over Gibbon or Benvenuto Cellini. Perhaps it was necessary to handle such worthies as John Wesley and Sir Robert Peel, such honored men as Bagehot and Browning, and such a contemporary as Froude, with sobriety; but while Mr. Birrell can write soberly as well as any one, we love him best when he is in his mood of merry mischief.

Is it because mysticism is incompatible with humor that Mr. Birrell's attitude has changed? To the ordinary mind, mysticism presents many incongruities, which to the mystic are sacred mysteries, not to be treated lightly. Certainly no one can read the essays entitled "The Christian Evidences," and "What, Then, Did Happen at the Reformation?" without feeling that Mr. Birrell is a sincere mystic. For, if these essays signify anything, it is that their author is more than half convinced of the truth of the doctrine of Transubstantiation. "Nobody nowadays," he says, "save a handful of vulgar fanatics, speaks irreverently of the Mass. If the incarnation be indeed the one divine event to which the whole creation moves, the miracle of the altar may well seem its restful shadow cast over a dry and thirsty land for the help of man, who is apt to be discouraged if perpetually told that everything really important and interesting happened, once for all, long ago in a chill historic past." The "tinkle of that bell" is "a sound carrying with it a richer freight of religious association than any other sound or incident of Christian worship." To a mind in this state, the Christian evidences, or Christian apologetics, constitute a dreary section of literature. "Paleyism is as dead as Queen Anne." Substitute "atmosphere" for "evidence," and Mr. Birrell is more at ease. To deny the existence of atmosphere in the realm of thought is "proof of blunted susceptibilities."

"It is obvious that a man who does not wish to break with Christianity, yet finds it out of the question to believe, in any downright honest sense, in the creed of Christendom, can find no shelter more convenient, less jarring and disagreeable, than an ancient, time-worn ritual, which gives dim expression to ghostly ideas, shadowy, symbolical, sacramental notions of sin, sacrifice, and atonement—ideas which possess the advantage of never coming into contact with the so-called realities of history, and elude as gracefully as a wreath of white smoke the grasp of proof."

Speaking reverently, it is obvious that a man who will believe this will believe anything—that is, anything that suits him. Nevertheless, the doctrine that truth is a matter of atmosphere has aspects that lend themselves to humorous treatment. No one could demonstrate this better than Mr. Birrell himself, were he in the mood for it; but, with his view of religion, even fetishism must be reverentially handled. In his essay on Bagehot—naturally most appreciative, for Bagehot declared in favor of mysticism—Mr. Birrell says: "It is a great shame, but one always remembers the playfulness of a writer—some purely human touch of his—so much better than one does his philosophy or history." We venture to say that the world will think it no shame to remember Mr. Birrell's playfulness long after it has forgotten his attempts at philosophizing and at rewriting the history of the Reformation.

A Dictionary of English and Welsh Surnames, with Special American Instances. By the late Charles Wareing Bardsley, M.A. Revised for the Press by his Widow. Henry Frowde. 1901.

'Bardsley's English Surnames, their Sources and Significations,' first appeared in 1873, and has been ever since the principal book of reference on the subject with which it deals. It ran through several editions during the author's lifetime. Though a number of other corresponding treatises have been subsequently written, none of them has ranked beside Bardsley's work, to say nothing of superseding it. But 'English Surnames' was never intended by the author as his final contribution on this theme. It was offered to the public rather as a preliminary study, a kind of report of progress, in the preparation of an extensive dictionary. For this larger work Canon Bardsley continued to collect materials almost up to the time of his death, in 1898, and his widow was busily occupied for two years more in preparing his manuscript for the press. The result of all these labors is the volume under review—a dictionary of some eight hundred closely printed pages, which attempts for the first time to deal in a fairly inclusive way with the history of English surnames. The introduction, written by the author in 1896, discusses briefly methods of investigation, and provides a general classification of the material in the dictionary. A preface, giving some account of Mr. Bardsley's life and work, is contributed by his brother, the Bishop of Carlisle.

In the field of study represented by this dictionary, completeness of treatment was hardly to be thought of. Many names will naturally be sought in vain in Mr. Bardsley's pages, and many variants of the names discussed are left unrecorded. Certain classes of names (as, for example, those which have obtained a special currency in Ireland because of their resemblance to Gaelic surnames) might, perhaps, have been more fully treated. But it will be easy for later compilers to add to the results obtained by the pioneer, whose dictionary will always remain a monument of industry and good judgment. He has not only brought together a great mass of material and placed it within convenient reach of the student, but his discussion of it is in the main very trustworthy. There must, in the nature of the case, be plenty of doubtful matter in such a volume. Mr. Bardsley, too, had certain limitations as a scientific etymologist—limitations of which he was well aware and which he expressly avows. Here and there a phrase or an observation betrays lack of philological training, as when he says, in his introduction, that *Sawyer*, *Napier*, and *Hathaway* contain an intrusive vowel "for euphony." This carries one back to the old explanations of the French *a-t-il*, with *t* inserted "for euphony" or "to prevent hiatus." But such statements

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impair very slightly the value of the book, which is singularly free, on the whole, from the kind of errors that mislead students and check the progress of knowledge. Mr. Bardsley had no pet theories to which he tried to make his evidence conform. He showed no predilection for Norman derivations, like the author of 'The Norman People' (London, 1874), or for traces of Scandinavian influence, like Barber in a more recent treatise on 'British Family Names' (London, 1894). He collected his proofs impartially, and then spread them liberally before the reader, who is thus able to control him at every step. The more we have examined the book and sought to sift his evidence, the more we have been impressed both with the candid spirit of the investigator and with the really vast amount of special learning which he accumulated in his lifetime of labor on his favorite subject.

The Blessing of the Waters on the Eve of the Epiphany: The Greek, Latin, Syriac, Coptic, and Russian Versions, edited or translated by John, Marquess of Bute, and E. A. Wallis Budge. Henry Frowde. 1901. Pp. viii+158.

This little book, which has become a memorial to the late Marquess of Bute, may fairly be regarded as an appendix to his translation of the Roman Breviary. It connects with the note there in volume i., page 264, on the Feast of the Epiphany. Throughout, apparently, the universal Oriental Church there is celebrated, between the service of the Eve of the Epiphany and the day itself, a very singular and beautiful ritual which commemorates the Adoration of the Magi, the Baptism in Jordan, and the turning of water into wine at Cana. These are regarded as three different manifestations of Christ, and are brought together on this day. But the two latter manifestations are connected with water, and the Oriental Church has known how to weave them into a general blessing of the waters—in the first instance, apparently, of the waters of the world, as represented in a single river—the Nile in Egypt and the Neva at St. Petersburg; and, in the second, of water to be used for lustration. Whether we have here a survival of some fragment of nature-worship woven into the Christian service, or merely a development, through instinctive poetry, from that service, it might be hard to say. Of the beauty of the ritual there can be no question.

In the Roman Church until recently the same ceremony survived, and in equally striking, if hardly so naïvely poetical, form. But it was performed in certain churches only, and made no part of the regular ritual of the Church. Now all that has been cut away, and in 1890 a form was approved by the Congregation of Sacred Rites, which abandons entirely the usage of the Church, Eastern and Western, and turns this rich and many-colored office into a most ordinary form for the consecration of holy water to be used against evil spirits. The historical allusions are swept away with the feeling for Nature and her travailings, and we have instead some most crude magical formulæ. There is a mournful and not too dutiful tone in the note of the Marquess of Bute where he—loyal son of the Church as he was—draws attention to its "entire variance from the ancient form."

This book can be heartily commended, not only to students of liturgics, but also to all who care to trace the movements of faith. Our only regret is that the forms of the Abyssinian and Armenian Churches have not been added; as things are, these are inaccessible enough. That of the Gregorian Church of Armenia, with its pre-Monophysite attitude, and its celebration of the Birth at Epiphany, would be of especial interest.

The Great Deserts and Forests of North America. By Paul Fountain. Longmans, Green & Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. x, 295.

This is certainly an unusual kind of book. It appears to contain the reminiscences of an English travelling peddler and collector of natural-history specimens through various parts of the West and Southwest regions of the United States, at a period some twenty-five years ago. The author, by his own account, was, if not a cripple, at least somewhat infirm about the legs, and could ride only on a specially made saddle. While not illiterate (for his narrative, if unpretentious, is easy and pleasantly written), he was a man of no training in science, and his observations contain more and more varied misinformation than we have ever come across in any single volume in many years. Almost the whole book is devoted to observations on natural history. It is surprising how any man of such experience in outdoor life, love of nature, and obvious intelligence could have been so ignorant and so credulous as this narrative indicates. And yet he was no fool, and was possessed by the love of the open field and forest, never killed wild animals wantonly, and, we are convinced, must have been a delightful chum for a wagon journey out into the wilderness.

The book is a most interesting psychological study. The errors of observation with which it literally teems, and the absurd explanations of geological and biological facts are, of course, obvious chiefly to readers of some technical training. But if one can overcome his natural reluctance to spend time reading absurdities retailed in perfect good faith and modest complacency, the glimpse into the workings of a mind entirely uninformed in science, untrained to accurate observation, subjected to the impressions of the almost untravelled wilderness, and taking a hearty enjoyment therein, has a charm and a novelty rare in these sophisticated days. The book is, in many things, absurd; it is multitudinously erroneous; it is comical; yet it is pathetically interesting. When we are done with it, we feel an affection for the author, for we are aware that, in communicating his observations to the public without a trace of vanity or dogmatism, he has succeeded in giving us, all unconsciously, glimpses of a truly lovable soul.

Great Epochs in Art History. By James M. Hoppin, lately Professor of Yale University. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1901. Pp. 247.

Professor Hoppin's book is a collection of essays divisible into four distinct epochs of art history. Half the volume is devoted to Italian religious painting; the essays or chapters being arranged partly with reference to geographical subdivision, and partly by artistic subject. Thus, the chapter on the Franciscan Cycle is followed rather closely by one devoted to S. Gimignano, and one on Prato, Pistoia, and Arezzo. A very short division is devoted to the sculptor Scopas; another, hardly longer, to French Gothic architecture; and a discussion of English Pre-Raphaelites completes the volume.

The papers are of the nature of contemplative reëxamination of one's own experiences. During his twenty years' incumbency of the professorship of art history at New Haven, Professor Hoppin has seen much fine art, and has meditated upon its significance; and it may not be incorrect to characterize this book as a collection of those thoughts which seemed to him the most valuable, either separately or in their combination. The essay-like character of the book is explained in this way, and its lack of systematic treatment largely justified. It is, of course, better reading for the majority of readers—that is to say, for all those who have no immediate purpose in their consideration of art problems—than if the work were more scientifically constructed, and the thought evolved with more complete and more visible precision. The reader has, then, only this to complain of, that the very numerous quotations from modern authors with which the text is interspersed, are not credited to their authors. It is really a vexation when one finds a sentence of value printed as a quotation, to have its ascription limited to "a contemporary," or simply "a writer."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Almanach de Gotha. 1902. Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac for 1902. The Scoville & Adams Co. 75 cents.

Bachelor Bigotries. By an Old Maid. San Francisco: Commercial Publishing Co.

Bassett, J. S. The Writings of "Colonel William Byrd of Westover in Virginia, Esqr." Doubleday, Page & Co. $10.

Blok, P. J. Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk. Part V. Groningen: G. B. Wolters.

Bridges, Robert. Milton's Prosody. Henry Frowde. $1.75.

Brotanek, Rudolf. Die Englischen Maskenspiele. Leipzig: Wilhelm Braumüller.

Cameron, J. H. The Elements of French Composition. H. Holt & Co. 75 cents.

Dante Alighieri. The Purgatorio. (The Temple Classics.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50 cents.

Dressler, Florence. Feminology. Chicago: C. L. Dressler.

Gilliat, E. God Save King Alfred. Macmillan. $2.

Housman, Laurence. The Field Clover. John Lane. $1.25.

Journal of Social Science, Containing the Proceedings of the American Association, No. XXXIX. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Kerley, C. G. Short Talks with Young Mothers. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Lumby, J. R., and McKnight, G. H. King Horn, Floriz and Blaunchefflur, The Assumption of Our Lady. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.

Mannix, Mary E. A Life Labyrinth. Notre Dame (Ind.): The Ave Maria. $1.25.

Martin, Jules. Nos Artistes: Annuaire des Théâtres et Concerts, 1901-1902. Paris: Paul Ollendorff. 3 fr. 5c.

Milton, John. Poems. London: George Newnes; New York: Scribners. $1.20.

O'Brien, R. B. The Life of Lord Russell of Killowen. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.

Olmsted, E. W. A Selection from the Comedies of Marivaux. Macmillan.

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Rhees, W. J. The Smithsonian Institution: Its Origin and History. Vol. II. Washington: Government Printing-Office.

Snaith, J. C. Love's Itinerary. D. Appleton & Co.

Stringer, G. A., and Eliza C. The King and the Cross. Boston: Eastern Pub. Co.

Sturgis, Russell. A Dictionary of Architecture and Building, O—Z. Macmillan.

Wormeley, Katharine P. Letters of Mlle. de Lespinasse. (Versailles Edition.) Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.

Wormeley, Katharine P. Memoirs and Letters of Cardinal de Bernis. (Versailles Edition.) 2 vols. Boston: Hardy, Pratt & Co.

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